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AUTHOR Gefen, Raphael, Ed.
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ABSTRACT

A syllabus for teaching English grammar at the primary, intermediate, and upper levels in Israeli schools is presented. The criteria for the selection and grading of grammatical structures in the syllabus are frequency, the usage of the majority of educated native speakers of American and British English, the productivity of the structure (the possibilities of its transfer and application to new situations), and the relevance of the structure to situations likely to be met by pupils at the given stage of learning. It is suggested that grammar be integrated with all the other language activities (vocabulary and pronunciation) and be directly linked to the teaching of the language skills (reading, writing, oral, and aural). Grammar is approached contextually, i.e., in the framework of a meaningful text. To incorporate the principle of meaningfulness at all stages (introduction, practice, and application), the teacher is admonished to plan carefully. Attention is also directed to the role of translation and to a pedagogical, rather than a scientific, grammar approach. The three stages of teaching grammar are viewed as introduction (presentation), drill practice (assimilation), and application (development, exploitation). The 147 grammar patterns that are taught in the English curriculum are presented and discussed. (SW)

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TEACHING THE PEDAGOGICAL GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH

ACCORDING TO THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM FOR ISRAEL SCHOOLS

Revised and Edited by **Raphael Gefen,**
Chief Inspector for English

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TEACHING GRAMMAR

Grammatical structures are learnt inductively in the form of sentence patterns — model sentences based on relevant situations, which are then modified and manipulated by means of various Repetition, Completion, Substitution and Transformation drills, and then used by pupils creatively in a context of controlled communication. Pupils in the lower Grades will have more memorization and repetition activities within a meaningful context, but in the course of studies in the Intermediate Division and especially in the Upper Division, formal summarizations of the rules learnt inductively as sentence patterns will be added. These summarizations will satisfy the older learner's need to analyze and categorize and thus in the end to arrive at a more creative use of the language. Nevertheless, teachers should undertake all such formal instruction in moderation (making sure that they adapt it to the level of the pupils concerned) and should see it as a summarization of demonstration, practice and inductive functional (contextualized) learning: it should not be a substitute for these activities. Thus, the overlearning of a meaningful pattern until the stage of automatic control of a structure is a principle applying at all levels of study, but in the late Intermediate and in the Upper Grades the drilling should be reduced and the application of the rule stressed more. Linguists and psychologists are not agreed as to the means by which language is learnt and the classroom teacher will no doubt discover the method suitable for himself and his class, by virtue of his personal experience, his further studies in Linguistics and Psychology, and his consultations with fellow-teachers, counsellors, inspectors and other colleagues.

NOTE: The patterns and rules outlined in this syllabus are based on contemporary use in the United States and in Great Britain. Some teachers may be taken aback by the insistent demand to use "it's me" or "who are you writing to?", but these are the formulas of the contemporary spoken language of educated natives. Formal-literary English is also taught in the final years of study. Teachers who have themselves learnt British English should note that for the sake of simplification and generalization the American form of the negative and interrogative of the verb "HAVE" has been adopted, i.e. "I don't have" and "do I have?". On the other hand, teachers whose own variety of English does not include the Present Perfect should adapt themselves here to majority usage.

The criteria for the selection and grading of grammatical structures in this syllabus are as follows:

a) frequency
b) usage of the majority of educated native speakers of American and British English.
c) productivity of the structure (the possibilities of its transfer and application to new situations).
d) relevance to situations likely to be met by pupils at the given stage of learning; hence, the Present Progressive is learnt before the Present Simple, despite the higher frequency of the latter, because of the learning situations afforded by classroom activities.

Teachers should pay particular attention to structures which do not occur in Hebrew or Arabic (for example the present tense of "BE") or to potential negative interference from the mother-tongue, such as in sentence word-order. Teachers should select a textbook which teaches grammatical structures integrated with the other aspects of the language: they are advised not to use a special grammar book (as distinct from a Language textbook) in class, unless for specific remedial purposes.

TEACHING GRAMMAR AS PART OF MEANINGFUL COMMUNICATION

by *Raphael Gefen*

As with all other aspects of language, grammar must be taught in the framework of communication. As such, it will be integrated with all the other language activities (vocabulary and pronunciation) and be directly linked to the teaching of the language skills (reading, writing, oral and aural). This means in essence that there should not be separate grammar lessons unconnected with these other activities, unless there is an exceptional reason for having an occasional one (e.g. revision, remedial teaching, or preparation for an examination). All language should be taught in the framework of meaningful situations, which means NOT having a separate grammar book ; instead the grammar is based on the oral or written text being learnt in class during a lesson which also contains other language activities. A good language textbook, therefore, should contain everything that is required in class, including ample scope for the teaching, drilling and applying of grammar forms. All too often, teachers think they are covering the whole programme and teaching for communication when they use a collection of readings AND a totally unconnected grammar drill book, but they fail to recognize that this practice is not conducive to communicative language learning, the basic principle of which is integrated language learning, everything in context.

Inductive and Deductive Learning

Because grammar should be taught contextually, in the framework of a meaningful text, the most suitable method for INTRODUCING the new grammar point is INDUCTIVELY, i.e. from the example to the rule. In other words, the pupils encounter the new grammar structure in the reading or oral text, including the Pre-Telecast lessons ; the teacher further "demonstrates" the new grammar form by producing a number of carefully worked-out-in-advance model sentences (which later might usefully be learnt by heart as part of the DRILL stage of language learning), and then, hopefully through "discovery-learning" by the pupils but if necessary through explanation by the teacher, the "rule" is taught, again exemplified by a meaningful and useful model sentence relevant to the pupils. Good textbooks also work on this principle, but it is best for the teacher to do it first. This inductive approach intrigues the pupils, induces processes of "hypothesis-testing" on their part, works all the time with samples of real language, and having reached the level of rule-formulation followed by more examples and by pattern-practice is more likely to be remembered in their long-term memory (i.e. learnt).

However, there is no denying the fact that some learners are uncomfortable with his approach and are only happy when learning DEDUCTIVELY, i.e. from the rule to the example. In this way, pupils know in advance what they are looking for and what is expected of them, and can organize their thinking processes accordingly, but even here the rule should be formulated as a series of model sentences which are meaningful and relevant to the pupils as well as in the form of a linguistic description. Not only do pupils in scientific streams tend to favour this system of learning (this is the opinion of many teachers, although it does not seem to have been tested), but researchers have also suggested that some socially-disadvantaged pupils also prefer learning in this way. On the other hand, weaker learners in general seem always to have great difficulty in learning grammatical patterns, whether taught inductively or deductively, so that for these pupils the stress in learning should be on vocabulary rather than on grammar, with grammar being taught wherever possible as if it were a collection of vocabulary items (e.g. "I can"= אני יכול, "I could"= יכולתי, without dealing too deeply with the concept of pastness).

In one class there might very well be both Deductive and Inductive learners (the teacher will soon discover who they are), so that while an Inductive approach is to be preferred and will probably have longer-lasting effects on most learners, teachers should naturally consider all the pupils and as a compromise introduce the explanation and rule rather early in the process, after a shorter period of contextualization which is intended to show the relevance and meaningfulness of the grammar point and then followed by intensive pattern practice and meaningful application.

This principle of meaningfulness at all stages (introduction, practice, application) has to be carefully thought out by the teacher. For example, a good way to teach Indirect Speech is through role-playing and dramatization ("What did he say? He said that..."). Similarly, the transformation from positive to interrogative will best be learnt by having pupil A ask pupil B a question (e.g. "Ask Moshe where he lives"). Visual aids ranging from stick men drawn on the blackboard to posters are also very effective, as is using a clock or a calendar for teaching the tenses. "Live" aids (i.e. pupils) will also teach tenses ("Sarah is standing. Sarah is going to write her name on the blackboard. Sarah has just come in.") and objects in the classroom will teach prepositions. Flashcards help teach word-order rules. Telecasts are the most effective means of demonstrating and reinforcing grammar; television is the most sophisticated of audio-visual aids. Where the grammar is taught in a meaningful context, it will be associated with reality and will therefore tend to be remembered better.

The Role of Translation

In language learning, a rule in the Mother-Tongue must be replaced by a rule in the Foreign language; but whereas in vocabulary or pronunciation the Foreign Language item is frequently perceived in such a way that no direct reference to the equivalent item in the Mother-Tongue is necessary (though this is far from always being the case in vocabulary, and the translation may often have to be given if only as a check), grammar rules are by their nature more abstract in character and so less easily perceived. As a result, Mother-Tongue interference is very marked. In order to combat this "negative transfer" of language rules, a direct contrast is often useful in the INTRODUCTION (i.e. not the DRILL-PRACTICE) stage of learning the grammar. Thus, having illustrated and then "codified" the Present Perfect Progressive, the teacher might ask the class "how would you say this in Hebrew (or Arabic)?", thereby eliciting the rule that in Hebrew this form is expressed by the present tense. At some stage or another in the INTRODUCTION of the grammar, this direct contrast will prove useful, but I would repeat that the DRILL-PRACTICE stage should subtle differences between the two languages. For example, pupils will tend to the other, since our purpose is to get pupils to function naturally in the foreign language, a process held back by systematic translation exercises: wherever possible, Foreign Language Learning should involve going straight into the language and not deliberately and systematically via the Mother-Tongue or back into the Mother-Tongue. The "incidental" one-time use of the Mother-Tongue in the process of explaining the Foreign Language rule will serve to clarify unambiguously the meaning of the grammatical structure, especially where there is no one-to-one equivalent in the Mother-Tongue (e.g. the present perfect).

This means, inter alia, that the teacher must be very conscious of the often subtle differences between the two languages. For example, pupils will tend to say "I am living in Jerusalem for five years" and the teacher must not only be able to correct this error and make the pupil repeat "I have been living...", but must also be able to explain to the pupils the source of this error. Again, many pupils will say "I know to speak English", which many teachers will correct to "I know how to speak English", but "I can speak English" is nearest the intention of the Hebrew speaker: the teacher must discover the intention of the speaker and not limit himself to a correction of surface errors. Word order rules are particular obstacles for the learner.

A Pedagogical not a Scientific Grammar

All teaching involves selection and grading; it does not mean massive exposure at one and the same time to all the subtleties of the foreign language (this is one of the pitfalls of the functional /notional approach when applied to beginners and lower-intermediate learners). Selection and grading in grammar

means using a *pedagogical* grammar as against a *scientific* grammar (which gives an exhaustive and explicit description). For example, when teaching the Present Progressive/Continuous for the first time, the teacher will certainly teach the meaning of CURRENT DURATION and will not at that juncture also teach its FUTURE meaning and/or its "PEJORATIVE HABIT" ("he is always correcting us") meaning; any rule given by the teacher is accompanied by mental reservations on his part — "the third person singular present ends with s", he says, but to himself adds silently "except in the subjunctive following verbs like "suggest". A pedagogical grammar is therefore a practical grammar, an INTERGRAMMAR, which is continually being added to and thereby changed.

It is also an eclectic applied grammar, combining the theories of different linguistic schools in order to apply them effectively in a teaching situation. There is not much point, for example, in drawing Phrase Structure trees on the blackboard, and the use of the possessive pronoun "my" can best be demonstrated as a filler in a substitution table in the same slot as demonstratives and articles and not as an underlying sentence. Similarly, there is no need to enter into the discussion whether there is a "future tense" in English or not (intention and modality) — for pedagogical purposes, the "future tense" exists! The teacher should call upon Traditional, Structural, Systemic and Transformational-Generative grammars to aid him in his work; and some acquaintance with these various schools is an essential part of the training of the teacher of English.

All *modern* theories of grammar (i.e. except for the TRADITIONAL school) support the teaching of grammar as a collection of SENTENCES (full or deleted), while in the upper grades of school we deal grammatically with units larger than the sentence (DISCOURSE). The minimum unit for use is the sentence — a model sentence in the INTRODUCTION of the rule and then Pattern Practice based on meaningful relevant sentences in the DRILL-PRACTICE stage. New grammar forms are taught, therefore, in the context of sentences not isolated words or phrases, but in a question-answer situation teachers should allow answers to be part-sentences and not insist on unnatural full sentences which often sound so artificial in a dialogue.

The Three Stages of Teaching Grammar

These are: INTRODUCTION (PRESENTATION), DRILL-PRACTICE (ASSIMILATION), and APPLICATION (DEVELOPMENT, EXPLOITATION). The remarks made above relate mostly to the PRESENTATION stage, whereby a situation is presented, a pattern (i.e. a model sentence) is produced and a rule established. At this stage as well as at all subsequent ones, meaningfulness is stressed. The second stage is the DRILL stage, which consists of two

parts: (i) MIM-MEM (mimicry-memorization), the rote learning of a number of meaningful sentences — one cannot overemphasise the importance of having all of the language activities being meaningful to the learner and not artificial sentences utterly irrelevant to him, sometimes even containing unfamiliar vocabulary (learning new grammar should always be done in vocabulary which is already familiar to the learner), and (ii) PATTERN PRACTICE (e.g. question-and-answer, completion drills, Cloze exercises, substitution drills, transformation drills, chain drills and other types of conscious manipulation and variation of the model sentences).

The third stage is the "free composition" stage of EXPLOITATION, whereby a learner produces his own sentences using the new language pattern. This open-ended, creative use of the new material, wherein the learner is asked to demonstrate whether he really has absorbed the new pattern, is also the test for the teacher, whether he has succeeded in inculcating the new structure.

These three stages dove-tail into one another, and when the teacher feels that enough DRILL-PRACTICE-ASSIMILATION has been done, he should pass on to the FREE COMPOSITION stage: nothing is more tedious than having the class continue with grammar drills long after it is clear that the pattern has been understood and mastered. On the other hand, cutting the drill period short before the new pattern has been thoroughly mastered is a very dangerous step: OVERLEARNING is a very important concept in language learning, taking into account the "curve of forgetting" (very noticeable in the actual USE of the language as distinct from the KNOWLEDGE of the rules) and the need for developing correct habits. Correct habits (a term preferable to "automatic responses" which might be misunderstood as disregarding the importance of meaningful communication in the foreign language) enable the learner to concentrate on the message (the content of language) rather than on the code (the form) and minimize Mother-Tongue interference; correct habits established by drills which provide for exclusive use of the foreign language in meaningful (to the pupil) contexts are an indispensable basis for using grammar in communication. But the final test is APPLICATION, using grammar in real communication, where the student must concentrate on the message rather than the code — "we cannot be sure that our students have mastered a given structure until we hear them produce it in a communication situation free of all controls" (Prator C., "Development of a Manipulation-Communication Scale", 1972).

THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM: GRAMMAR PROGRAMME

(For a summary of the Grammar programme for Grades 5-12, see "ENGLISH CURRICULUM FOR SCHOOLS, GRADES 5-12", published by the Curriculum Centre, Ministry of Education and Culture, 1977.)

The ENGLISH CURRICULUM was drawn up by the English Committee of the Ministry of Education and Culture, originally set up as the "English Curriculum Committee" —
הוועדה לתכנית הלימודים לאנגלית, הוועדה המקצועית להוראת אנגלית

GRADE 5

The material is graded but not sequenced in detail. The following list should therefore serve as a general guide only. Major patterns (e.g. verb tenses) should be sequenced as listed, but minor patterns (e.g. prepositional patterns) can be interspersed and fitted situationally.

Patterns taught early in the course (e.g. BE patterns) should be continually revised and drilled at later stages.

Patterns 1-26 are obligatory for Grade 5; patterns 27-33 may be left to Grade 6 at the discretion of the teacher or course-writer (some may be left to Grade 7).

Contracted forms are used in oral work and pupils are taught to regard them as normal spoken English: the full forms are taught as the written language or for emphasis. Stress is laid all the time on sentence patterns rather than word paradigms. Apart from the interrogative, the word order patterns taught are non-inverted (i.e. Subject + Verb + Complement, Object or Verb-Adjunct).

Pattern 1: Subject + Linking Verb (LV) + Subject Complement

Examples:	*Subject*	*LV*	*Complement*
	I	am	big, etc.
	You	are	here
	He	is	David
	She		a / the boy
	It		water
	This/That		
	David		
	A/The boy		
	Water		

Patterns with the Linking Verb ("BE") are the fundamental statement of predication and as such are taught first.

1.1 *The Subject*

The Subject is taught in the singular only (the plural is taught in Pattern 14). It may be (i) the Personal Pronouns: "I, You, He, She, It";

(ii) the Demonstrative Pronouns in the singular: "This, That" (the plural Demonstratives are taught in Pattern 15);

(iii) Proper Nouns: e.g. "David";

(iv) Common Nouns — Countables: "the boy, a boy" etc.;
— Uncountables: "water", etc.
(See Notes to Pattern 13).

1.2 *The Linking Verb*

"BE" is regarded as the "Linking Verb" (also called the "Copula") as it bears no significant meaning in itself and serves to equate the Subject and Complement and to carry the markers of tense, person and number. The present tense only is taught in Grade 5 (this applies to all verbs). Colloquial Hebrew has no overt expression for the present tense of "BE" so this form will constitute a real difficulty for the pupil, especially as it is the first pattern he meets. Nevertheless, considerations of frequency and situation require its position as the first structure to be taught. The teacher copes with the problem of its non-occurrence in Hebrew by ensuring that the pupils meet it always as an integral part of a sentence pattern and not as an isolated morphological paradigm.

1.3 *The Complement*

The term "Complement" or ("Subject Complement") is the third item in this type of predication; characteristically, it is a feature of the Subject. As such, it is quite different from the Direct Object of the Transitive Verb pattern, which is distinct from the Subject (with the exception of the Reflexive Pronoun).

The Complement may be (i) an adjective — "big", etc.;

(ii) an adverb — "here", etc.;

(iii) a Proper Noun or common noun.

Some adjectives only occur as part of the Complement (predicative adjectives), e.g. "He is asleep", "She is well", while a few adjectives only occur attributively, e.g. "main".

Pattern 2: Subject + Linking Verb: contracted forms

Full Form		*Short form*
I am	=	I'm
You are	=	You're
He is	=	He's
She is	=	She's
It is	=	It's
David is	=	David's
The boy is	=	The boy's

These short forms are to be used for oral work by the class. Under no circumstances should the impression be given that these forms are somehow "slang", slovenly, or "substandard". Full forms are used in formal writing, for Short Answers in the positive (see Pattern 5), for emphasis and of course for inverted word order in the interrogative. Logically, this pattern comes after the full forms, but in practice the pupil will meet the contracted forms before the full ones, in view of the recommendation that the first lessons be aural-oral only.

N.B. Spelling: "it's" is the contracted form of "it is"; it has no connection with the possessive pronoun (determiner) "its", meaning "belonging to it". Confusion sometimes arises because of the double function of the apostrophe to signify both possession and omission.

Pattern 3: Subject + Linking Verb + "Not" + Complement

Pattern 1 in the negative; the structure is the same as Pattern 1, with the insertion of the negator function word "NOT" after the relevant form of "BE".

Examples:	I am	not	big
	He is		David
	The water is		clean

Pattern 4: Subject + Linking Verb + Complement: contracted forms

Pattern 2 in the negative.

4.1 The short forms are:

= /aim nɔt/ (I.P.A. Notation)	I'm not
= /*a*:nt/ British; /*a*rnt/ U.S.A. and elsewhere	You aren't
= /iznt/	He, she, it isn't

4.2 "I'm not" is the only acceptable form for the first person singular, whereas "you aren't" and "he isn't" can be replaced by "you're not" and "he's not", respectively. However, in the negative interrogative structure, as met in tag questions etc., only the forms "aren't" and "isn't" are found. (N.B. Note that the first person singular negative interrogative is "aren't I?"). These structures are not taught in Grade 5, but the ground is prepared by the consistent use of these forms of the contracted negative. Pupils might however meet the alternative forms as part of their passive "recognition" grammar.

4.3 Do not teach the full verb "HAVE" as if it fitted this pattern. For the sake of simplicity of pattern and in terms of international majority usage, the American pattern is to be preferred to the British. Thus, "HAVE" is taught as a regular member of Patterns 30-33, the normal transitive verb pattern, and so should be taught in the positive form only, at this early stage.

"I have a book, breakfast..."
"I don't have..."
"Do I have...?"

4.4 Naturally, the pupil will meet these other forms during the course of his studies, but for Grade 5 the learning should be eased wherever compatible with a correct usage. In this case the correct usage adopted is that of American English. Teachers speaking the British variety (which of course also uses "do have" for the nonpossessive and even certain possessive meanings of the verb) should adapt themselves to classroom needs grammatically, just as they already do lexically. In any case, "I have not a book" is a stiff, hyper-formal English, found more in textbooks for teaching English to foreigners than in everyday conversation.

4.5 "No" may be used before a Direct Object as a negative article which substitutes for the definite and indefinite articles — "I have the/a/no book" — but pedagogical and semantic problems make it advisable to postpone this Pattern till Grade 6.

Pattern 5: Linking Verb + Subject + Complement

This is the YES/NO Interrogative form of Pattern 1 and like its positive and negative counterparts should be introduced very early in Grade 5 for pedagogical-situational reasons:

Examples:

Linking Verb	*Subject*	*Complement*	*Punctuation*
BE (Am, Are, Is)	Personal Pronoun Demonstrative Pronoun Common Noun Proper Noun	Adjective Adverbial (i.e. adverb or prepositional phrase) Pronoun Common Noun Proper Noun	?

5.1 The "YES/NO" Interrogative is the question-form without the use of specific question words. The transformation is easily demonstrated by the inversion of the verb and its subject: "He is David → Is he David?"

Grammatical inversion does not occur in Hebrew so the pupil is likely to find the structure rather difficult, but the item has to be introduced very early in order to make learning and teaching meaningful, interesting and enjoyable.

5.2 A question may be asked without any syntactic inversion — "He's David?" This pattern is mainly used in a very informal context, especially to show incredulity; pupils should *not* be allowed to use it or at least not until they have thoroughly mastered the inverted form.

5.3 Pupils must be taught the intonation signal for this type of question, both with and without syntactic inversion. In both cases, there is a rising tone at the end of the sentence, as against the level or falling tone at the end of a declarative (positive and negative) statement or an interrogative sentence beginning with a question-word ("WH-Interrogative").

There are numerous instances where the intonation signal is not exactly as stated above, but pedagogically the above rule holds.

5.4 Short answers: A short answer consists of the addition of the sentence-adverbs "Yes/No" before the subject (normally a Pronoun) and the deletion of the complement.

Examples: Are you David?

"Yes I am." (N.B. Full forms only, not the contracted.)
"No, I'm not." (Full or short forms.)

It is considered more polite to give a short answer, as defined above, than a terse one-word response, "Yes" or "No".

Pattern 6: Interrogative Pronoun (Subject) + Linking Verb + Complement

6.1 This pattern is an interrogative transformation of Patterns 1 and 2, in the form of a "WH"-Question, with the Interrogative Pronoun (function word, Substitute Noun) as the Subject of the sentence. This type of interrogative is called "WH" as it begins with a question-word, which in turn usually begins with the digraph "wh" (except "how"). It is also called an "Information Question", since it demands more than a yes/no response.

6.2 The pronouns are *WHAT?* and *WHO?*

Examples:	What is here?	What's here?
	Who is there?	Who's there?

Where there is no Complement, only the full form of the Linking Verb is used — What is? / Who is?

6.3 In this Pattern, both "WHAT" and "WHO" are the Subject of the sentence so the word-order is regular and non-inverted (Subject + Linking Verb + Complement, as Pattern 1), as distinct from Pattern 7.

6.4 *Intonation*

The normal intonation tune for Patterns 6, 7 and 8 is a falling or level tone at the end of the sentence.

Pattern 7: Interrogative Pronoun (Subject – Complement) + Linking Verb + Subject

7.1 This pattern is another type of "Information Question" (WH), this time with inverted word order:

Sentence Pattern:	*Complement*	*LV*	*Subject*
	Who/What	is	he?

7.2 The question "Who is it?" is followed by the answer "it's me" and not "it's I", despite its Subject-Complement character. This apparent contradiction is a very minor issue in modern English, which does not distinguish the Subject and Objective cases by inflectional suffixes (as in German) or by the use of a function-word (as in Hebrew). In fact, the Subjective/Objective distinction in English exists only in the Personal Pronouns. "Me" is to be preferred either because it parallels the transitive pattern of the Objective case following the verb (albeit a Linking Verb in this case) or as an emphatic form similar to the French "moi". The expression "it is I" is very restricted.

Pattern 8: Interrogative Adverb + Linking Verb + Subject

8.1 This pattern is also an interrogative transformation of Patterns 1 and 2, in the form of a WH-Question; however in this case the interrogative function-word is not the Subject of the sentence, but an adverb.

Interrogative adverbs taught in Grade 5 are

WHERE?
HOW MUCH?
HOW MANY?

Other interrogative adverbs (WHEN, WHY, HOW) are taught in Grades 6 and 7.

The important syntactic difference between Pattern 6 on the one hand and 7 and 8 on the other lies in the word order. Whereas Pattern 6 followed the declarative pattern, since the Interrogative Pronoun was the Subject of the sentence, Patterns 7 and 8 have inverted word order, with the Subject following the Linking Verb:

Examples:	*Adverb*	*Linking*	*Subject*
	Where	is	David?
	How much		the bread?

8.2 *Intonation.* See paragraph 6.4

8.3 Although pupils should be encouraged to work within the framework of a full sentence under normal circumstances, teachers need not demand a full sentence as an answer to every question. Otherwise the language becomes very artificial. Once the basic sentence has been learnt, short answers may be accepted.

Examples:	*Question*	*Answer*
	Who is he? (Pattern 7)	David.
	Where is he?	In the bath.

Pattern 9: Noun Plurals ending in "s" and pronounced /z/

Since these initial learning-stages are aural-oral, the pupil should not be told about "plural s" until he learns to read, as this suffix is a spelling convention only.*

The rule is: /z/ after vowels (monophthongs and diphthongs) and non-sibilant voiced consonants.

Examples of /z/ after vowels are:

"Jews"
"letters" according to some British varieties
"families"
"windows"
"days"
"hours"
"eyes"

Examples of /z/ afrter non-sibilant voiced consonants are:

"arabs"
"friends"
"eggs"
"names"
"pens"
"songs"
"bells"
"letters" according to some American varieties
"halves" with the additional change of voiceless to voiced consonant in the root — "half" to "halves", "wife" to "wives", "leaf" to "leaves".

There appear to be no examples of noun singulars with a final consonant "-th" as in "the", but since this rule of pronouncing the suffix spelt "s" also applies to the third person singular of the verb ("he bathes"), it is included in the list above. Furthermore, the singular "mouth" is pluralized as "mouths", while the noun-plural "clothes" occurs, although it has no corresponding singular form. Both "mouths" and "clothes" pronounce "th" as in "the" (voiced).

Pattern 10: Noun Plurals, ending in "s" and pronounced /s/

The final phoneme of the singular is a voiceless non-sibilant consonant.

Examples of /s/ plural are:

"maps"
"cats"
"books"
"months"
"tariffs"

Pattern 11 : Noun Plurals, ending in "s" or "es" and pronounced /ɪz/

The final phoneme of the singular is a sibilant fricative (hissing sound) or an affricate:

voiced sibilants	—	e.g. "quizzes", "garages"
voiceless sibilants	—	e.g. "places", "brushes"
voiced affricate	—	e.g. "sandwiches"
voiceless affricate	—	e.g. "churches"

N.B. "houses" /hauziz/: note the change of voiceless to voiced consonant in the root, without a change of spelling — /haus/ → /hauziz/.

Pattern 12 : Noun Plurals — other forms

12.1 A limited number of other plural forms will occur in the vocabulary for Grades 5 and 6. While regularity of a form is a major criterion, clearly dictating the choice of the plural suffix spelt "s", the frequency or availability of a given item will necessitate its inclusion in the pattern despite its possiole irregularity or membership of a minor pattern. Patterns formed by vowel change (e.g. man → men) or "non-s" suffixes (child → children) are taught as separate items.

12.2 Note that the plural of "man" is "men" pronounced /mæn/ → /men/, but the pairs "postman — postmen" and "gentleman — gentlemen" are pronounced the same in the singular and plural — /postmən/.

12.3 *Singular morphologically but plural syntactically*:

Some nouns are singular in form but govern the plural form of the accompanying verb ("concord"):

"The police are..."
"The people are...", where "people" means "men and/or women".

12.4 *Plural morphologically but singular syntactically*:

The reverse applies to words like "mathematics" and "news" — the suffix "s" does not seem to signify plurality, so the pattern will be "Mathematics is...", "The news is...". The Hebrew equivalent in the second example will govern the plural verb.

• Linguists would say that the abstract "plural" morpheme in English has many phonological exponents (/z/s/iz/ən/, vowel change, zero, "foreign" plurals or combinations of these forms) or that the plural morpheme in English is [Z] with the non-/z/ forms as phonologically- or morphologically-conditioned allomorphs. But all are agreed that the plural in English is not the suffix "s", as explained above.

Pattern 13: "Countable" and "Uncountable" Nouns, including the use of the Articles

("thing" and "mass" nouns in some grammar books)

13.1 Both these categories of the noun are traditionally part of the Common Noun category, but grammatically the categorization of nouns into Countables and Uncountables is far more significant and valuable. As the term suggests, this division indicates semantically which objects signified by the noun can be counted and which cannot. Grammatically, the significance lies in the possibility to pluralize and in their co-occurrence with the Articles or other determiners.

The Definite Article — "the"
The Indefinite Article — "a, an"

Some linguists define "no" before a noun as the "negative article", since it cannot co-occur with "the" or "a/an" but replaces them in a substitution table: "The/A/No book is on the table".

13.2 *Uncountables*

By definition, an Uncountable noun is never preceded by the indefinite article, since "a" signifies a number. Uncountables are abstract nouns and "mass nouns". Examples are:

abstract nouns — "music, sport, history, English"
"mass" nouns — "money, water, fish, food, tea, bread, milk"

Where a quantifier is required, "some" is used — "some money". Unlike the Hebrew usage, Uncountable nouns in English are not preceded by the definite article in their "generic" meaning: "Milk is...".

An Uncountable is preceded by the definite article when it has an "identifying" meaning: "The water in the cup is dirty". Contrast "Milk is good for you." (generic) and "The milk is here". (i.e. the particular milk we are looking for).

Uncountable nouns in English can be (note the contrast with Hebrew usage):

13.2.1 *Singular only* — singular in form and also in concord,
e.g. "Water is..." "Furniture is..."
"Advice is..."
— plural in form but singular in concord,
e.g. "The news is..."

13.2.2 *Plural only* — singular in form, plural in concord,
e.g. "The police are..."
— plural in form and also in concord,
e.g. "Glasses are..." (meaning "spectacles")

13.3 *Countables*

Countable nouns are "thing" nouns and must be preceded in the singular by either the definite or the indefinite article.

The definite article "THE" appears in both singular and plural and means "previous mention", "restriction", "specification", or "particularization"; the indefinite article "A/AN" signifies one item, while there is no plural indefinite article (an alternative formulation — the plural indefinite article is zero). "Some" is often used in this context: a book = "Some books" or " "books" (See the Syllabus for Grade 7).

Since Hebrew has no indefinite article, pupils should always associate a Countable noun with an indefinite article and should learn them together, e.g. "a door" and not "door".

The alternative forms "A/An" depend on pronunciation and not on the spelling of the initial letter of the following word. "A" appears before a consonant *sound*, whether the actual letter is a "consonant" or a "vowel".

"a book"	/ə buk/
"a university"	/ə ju:nivə:siti/

"An" appears before a vowel *sound*:

"an egg"	/ən eg/
"an hour"	/ən auə/

13.4 *Homonyms*

Some words are both Countables and Uncountables, with slightly different meanings:

e.g.	"glass"	=	uncountable; a material
	"a glass"	=	countable, a utensil
	"the glass"	=	a particular example of the material or a specific utensil

Pattern 14: The Plural Form of the Linking Verb

The plural form of sentence patterns 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

Examples: "We are (not) big, here, boys..."

"You are (not) big..."
"They are (not) big..."
"We/You/they aren't big..."
"Are they big?"
"Who/what/where, etc. are they?"

Pattern 15: Demonstrative Pronoun + Linking Verb + Complement

Singular and plural forms, in the positive, negative and interrogative.

15.1 Example: "This/That is big..." (as Pattern 1)
"These/Those" are big..." (as Pattern 14)

Only "that is" possesses a contracted form -- "that's".

Distinguish "this/these" from "that/those" by the criterion of PROXIMITY. "This/these" is nearer in place, time or importance (i.e. a metaphorical use, meaning "nearer one's centre of attention or interest"). "Those" is not as frequent as "these" but should nevertheless be introduced as a member of the series.

15.2 *Interrogative or Negative Stimulus and its Responses*

The singular response to an interrogative or negative stimulus using "this/that" is "it", e.g.

"Is *this* a book? Yes, *it* is. No, *it* isn't."
"*This* is not big. *It* is small."

The plural response to "these/those" is "they are...", e.g.
"Are *those* airplanes? Yes, *they* are. No, *they* aren't."

The pronoun "it" is used even if a person is referred to, e.g.
"Is *that* Mr. X? Yes, *it* is. No, *it* isn't."

Pattern 16: Attributive Modifiers

16.1 Attributive modifiers describe the noun they precede or immediately follow. A major grammatical signal in English is word order. For this reason among others, pupils should always be drilled within the framework of syntactic patterns, especially complete sentences. Drills of isolated words (e.g. noun plurals) or morphological paradigms (e.g. a table of all the persons, genders, and numbers of a given tense form) should be avoided. Always practise in terms of natural speech units (phrases or sentences), whenever possible.

16.2 Attributive modifiers taught in Grades 5 and 6 are:

an adjective — "a *big* boy", etc.
another noun (Adjunct noun) — "a *bus* station", etc.
a possessive pronoun (possessive determiner) — "my, your, his, her, its, our, their".
a genitive noun or phrase — "*David's* book".
a demonstrative (determiner) — *this* book, etc.
a prepositional phrase — the book *on the table.*

All the attributive possessive pronouns are to be taught in Grade 5, but not the predicative possessive pronouns ("mine, yours, etc."). The rule for the Genitive Noun is not taught till later in the Primary School course, but pedagogical considerations dictate the use of children's names in the Genitive; use those genitive nouns as separate items in a substitution table for the possessive pronouns, e.g.

This is	my	book
	your	
	David's	

Note that in some circumstances, the possessive pronoun may itself modify a genitive noun, e.g. "My David's book", the whole forming a Genitive Phrase.

16.3 Terminological note:

An "attributive" modifier is in juxtaposition with its Headword, a "predicative" modifier is separated from its Head by the linking verb "BE" ("the boy is big").

16.4 *Word Order*

16.4.1 The possessive pronouns, the Article and the demonstratives precede adjectives and noun-modifiers in the sentence, e.g. "My new gramophone record". The possessive pronouns, the Articles and the Demonstratives are called "determiners", as are certain other word-classes. With few exceptions, Determiners do not co-occur but replace each other in a substitution table, e.g.

The	new house is...
This	
My	

16.4.2 The Adjective precedes the Noun-Adjunct in the sentence, e.g. "a good (Adj.) transistor (N) radio". A different rule applies where a genitive noun modifies a Head ("my son's new hat") but as stated above, the Genitive Pattern is not taught till later; instead, a few instances of children's names may occur as separate items (paragraph 16.2).

16.4.3 "All", "Half" and some other words are Pre-Articles or Pre-Determiners and precede all other items in the Noun-Phrase, e.g.

"All the boys are..."
"Half an/the orange is..."

Both these words can be followed by "of" with no change of meaning:

"All of the boys are..."
"Half of an/the orange..."

The general rule for attributive modifiers taught in Grade 5 is therefore: ± Pre-Determiner ± Determiner ± Adjective ± Noun-Adjunct + Noun Head ± prepositional phrase. The sign ± means that the word-class in question may or may not appear.

16.5 Instances of potential Mother-tongue interference with attributive Modifiers on the part of Hebrew speakers are:

word order — Adjective Modifier following Noun-Head, e.g.
"*The boy good" or even "*The boy the good"
instead of "The good boy"
word class — Noun Adjunct as Prepositional Phrase, e.g.
"*A house from stone" instead of "A stone house"
Number — Adjectives declined for grammatical Number, e.g.
"*The bigs boys"

Pattern 17: The Imperative

17.1 Verbs other than "BE" are now taught in their "base" form to signify the Imperative. This form thereby provides a useful basis for the subsequent introduction of the Present Continuous (Progressive) and Simple Tenses.

Examples: "(Please) stand up!"
"Go to the door!"
"(Please) open your books!"

In fact the whole concept of the Transitive verb taking the Direct Object is introduced incidentally via the Imperative.

17.2 The Imperative form is used to give an order or make a request. The word "please" preceding the Imperative transforms it into a request; if "please" follows the Imperative, it is a reprimand.

Pattern 18: The Negative Imperative

The Negative Imperative ("Don't go!") introduces the concept of the "carrier" function-word "DO", which pupils will meet and use later in the Present Simple, negative and interrogative forms.

Note that in Modern English, "Don't" is used with "BE" to form its Negative Imperative ("Don't be late!").

Pattern 19: The Present Tense / Continuous (Progressive) Aspect: positive

19.1 The structure of the Present Continuous should not constitute a learning problem as pupils are used to the "BE" pattern; note that "BE" in the Continuous Aspect is not a Linking Verb but an Auxiliary Verb. Teachers should

present the BE + -ING form in a complete sentence always, e.g. "I am writing", otherwise pupils tend to identify the Continuous (Progressive) meaning with the suffix -ING alone and so omit the Auxiliary. Contracted forms are taught as with the Linking Verb. Linguists tend to regard BE + -ING as one morpheme in the underlying structure; even in the surface structure of the language, where the two forms are separated by the base form of the verb, they might be considered as one "discontinuous morpheme".

19.2 Although the Present Simple is now generally thought to be the more frequent Aspect, classroom situations and needs determine that priority be given to the Present Continuous. On the other hand, a very common error by the foreign learner is to use the Continuous where the Simple is the correct form (e.g. * "I am reading the newspaper every day"). This may be due to over-anxiety in the use of this very "idiomatic" Aspect or simply to having been taught it first. If this is the case, the Present Simple should be introduced fairly soon afterwards and ample drill given in contrasting the two forms.

19.3 The rule guiding the teacher in this pattern is "INCOMPLETE DURATION". No other uses of the Present Continuous are taught in Grades 5 and 6, e.g. as Future ("I am coming tomorrow") or as Habit ("I am always thinking of you"). Drill should be in terms of complete sentences including an adverb of incomplete duration, e.g. "I am writing now, at this moment..." or as answers to questions such as "What are you doing?", in which case no adverb is required ("I'm writing a letter").

Pattern 20: The Present Tense, Continuous (Progressive) Aspect — negative

Sentence Pattern: Subject + Auxiliary "BE" + "NOT" + Base + -ING suffix ± Object ± Prepositional Phrase

Here again the pupil is used to the "BE" + "NOT" pattern from the Linking Verb. The contracted forms are taught as with the Linking Verb.

Pattern 21: The Present Tense, Continuous (Progressive) Aspect — interrogative Yes/No

Sentence Pattern: Auxiliary "BE" + Subject + Base + -ING suffix ± Object ± Prepositional Phrase:

Example: *Are you writing a letter to him?*

In teaching the "YES/NO" interrogative structure, short answers should be drilled as well as the complete forms:

Example: "Are you coming? Yes, I am.
No, I'm not."

These short answers, where the auxiliary is used instead of the main verb, are variously called "CODE", "ECHO IN REPETITION", "PRO-PREDICATE" or "AVOIDANCE OF REPETITION" by linguists.

Pattern 22: The Present Tense, Continuous (Progressive) Aspect — interrogative with "WH" Pronoun

22.1 See patterns 6 and 7 (Linking Verb) for the main grammatical principles underlying this pattern.

22.2 Sentence Pattern: Interrogative Pronoun (Subject) + Auxiliary "BE" + Base + -ING ± Object ± Prepositional Phrase (as Pattern 6).

"Who is writing a letter to him?"

Short answers are drilled as well as the complete forms:

"Who is coming?" "I am". (see notes to Pattern 21).

22.3 *"WHAT" and "WHO" as the Object of the Verb*

These pronominal objects in initial sentence position require inverted word-order (see Pattern 7):

Examples: "What are you doing?"
"Who are you helping?"
"Who are you writing to?"

Use "WHO" and not "WHOM" as the pronominal object. In the course of their studies the pupils will meet the more formal "WHOM". At this stage "WHO" is taught as it is by far the more common usage, particularly in the spoken language. Similar considerations apply to the use of the end-prepositions: most if not all English grammarians today regard the end-preposition as the normal informal usage in Modern English. "To whom are you writing?" occurs in highly formal usage only, while "with whom were you last night?" does not occur. The third "compromise" formula of "whom are you writing to?" is also rather formal.

Pattern 23: The Present Tense, Continuous (Progressive) Aspect — interrogative with "WH" — adverb

See Pattern 8 (Linking Verb) for the main grammatical principles underlying this Pattern.

Sentence Pattern:
Interrogative Adverb + Auxiliary "BE" + Subject + Base + -ING suffix ± Object ± Prepositional Phrase.

Note the inverted word order (e.g. "Where is he going?").

Pattern 24: The Grammatical Subject: "There is/are . . ."

24.1 Sentence Pattern:

Positive — THERE IS/ARE + NOUN PHRASE (NP) ± Prepositional Phrase
Negative — THERE IS/ARE + NOT + NP ± Prepositional Phrase
Contracted Forms — THERE'S . . . ("There're" is very rare indeed and should not be taught).

THERE ISN'T/AREN'T . . .
ISN'T/AREN'T THERE . . .?

24.2 "THERE IS" is a meaningless "grammatical subject" function (structure) phrase appearing in Subject position; the "logical" or "real" Subject comes after the Linking Verb, in the place of the Subject Complement (see Pattern 1). It is also called the "dummy subject" or the "Pro-Subject" or "preparatory THERE" and should not be confused with the adverb of place "THERE". The function-word "THERE" is not stressed, while the adverb of place may be.

The interrogative form "IS THERE . . .?" follows the intonation pattern for other YES/NO questions and has a rising tone at the end of the sentence.

The "logical" or "real" subject must be a Noun or Noun-Phrase ("There's *a book* over there."). This Pattern is often preferred to the alternative order ("A book is over there.") when the subject is indefinite and has not already been identified. Alternatively, THERE IS/ARE may serve as an "attraction-drawer" to the "real" Subject following.

The number of the verb "BE" is determined by the "real" Subject following the verb: "There are three books over there".

24.3 Short Answers: "Yes, there is/are." (i.e. positive short answers never contract).

"No, there isn't / there aren't".

Pattern 25: Prepositional Patterns

Prepositions are structure (function) words of time, place, direction, etc., which indicate a dependent relationship between two words, the second one being a noun or pronoun. Personal pronouns governed by a preposition are in the Objective Case (e.g. "between him and me"). Syntactically, a preposition followed by a Pronoun, Noun or Noun-Phrase (Determiner ± Modifier + Noun) is a "PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE". In Grade 5, some prepositions of place, direction, time, instrument and accompaniment are taught.

25.1 *Place*

The book is *in* the table.
on
under
by (or *near*)

I live *at* home Teach "at" for small places, "in" for larger ones (according to the view-point of the speaker!)

He lives *up* the tree.

25.2 *Direction*

I am going *from* Tel Aviv to Jerusalem.
I am writing *to* you (metaphorical direction).
He is going *into* the water.
He is running *down* the street.
He is running *up* the street.
He is going *out/out of* the window.

25.3 *Time*

The lesson is *at* 8 o'clock *on* Wednesday *in* the morning.

It is half *past* ten. "At" before a specified hour; but note "at night".

It is five *to* ten. "On" before days of the week or dates (on January (the) 4th).

"In" before divisions of the day when preceded by the definite article ("in the afternoon"), months, years and seasons.

Most speakers of English use "past" and "to" as above, but some American varieties use "before" or "after". The "to—past" forms are the ones to be taught.

25.4 *Instrument* (*or Manner*)

I am writing *with* a pen.
I am going *by* bus, car, train, ship, airplane (N.B. no article)
I am going *on* foot (" ")

25.5 *Accompaniment*

I am going *with* you.

Prepositions taught are:

AT = place, time; BY = place, instrument; DOWN = direction; FROM = direction; IN = place, time; INTO = direction; ON = place, time, instrument; OUT/OUT OF = direction; PAST = time; TO = direction, time; UNDER = place; UP = place, direction; WITH = instrument, accompaniment.

Pattern 26 : CONJUNCTIONS "AND" and "BUT"

These conjunctions are also called "connectives" or "sentence-connectors". "AND" and "BUT" are co-ordinating conjunctions: they connect grammatically parallel structures — two sentences (thereby constituting a "Compound Sentence"), two phrases or two words.

"And" indicates addition ; "but" indicates contrast.

PATTERNS FOR GRADES 5 OR 6

Pattern 27 : The Transitive Pattern : Subject + Verb + Object + Prepositional Phrase

27.1 As stated in the notes to Pattern 16, word order (an integral part of syntax) is a major grammatical signal in English. Traditional grammars often disregard syntax and concentrate on the far less important field of morphology (the inflection and derivation of words). Because of the central role of word order in English grammar (as well as for deeper psychological and linguistic reasons), the sentence pattern is considered today to be the way to present English grammar and as such is often called the "Linguistic Method". The regular order of words in declarative statements is

Subject + Verb + Complement or Object

27.1 The (Subject) Complement immediately follows the Linking Verb "BE", the Object immediately follows the Transitive Verb. In Hebrew, word-order is freer and an adverb may be interposed between the Verb and the Object.

27.3 The Indirect Object ("I am writing *you* a letter.") is taught in Grade 6 ; in Grade 5 a prepositional phrase can be used instead — "I am writing a letter to you", "I am buying a book for you".

27.4 The WH-Interrogative adverb form of the Transitive Pattern follows the above pattern of Subject before Verb: the Auxiliary is inverted and placed before the Subject but the Main Verb still follows the Subject and is followed by the Object.

27.5 The pronominal object may be taught as part of this Pattern — "me, you, him, her, it, us, them". See notes to Pattern 7 for the use of "IT'S ME" rather than the hyper-correct "IT IS I".

Pattern 28: The Present Simple Tense — positive

28.1 The "base" form of the verb constitutes the Present Simple tense (exception: "BE"), with the addition of the suffix "-s" or "-es" for the 3rd person singular. The pronunciation of this suffix is /z/, /s/ or /iz/ according to the same principles as underlay the "plural-s" of nouns, i.e. "s" = /z/, when the base form ends in a voiced nonsibilant consonant or a vowel (monophthong or diphthong).

Examples: "knows" /nouz/
"runs" /rʌnz/
"sells" /selz/

"s" = /s/, when the base form ends in a voiceless nonsibilant consonant.

Examples: "asks" = /ɑ:sks/
"hopes" = /houps/
"sits" = /sits/

The suffix "-es" /iz/ is added to a base ending in a sibilant fricative ("hissing sound") or an affricate. Where the base ends with a "silent e", only "s" is added.

Examples: dress → dresses
use → uses
wash → washes
touch → touches

The verbs "do", "have" and "say" are exceptions, to a certain extent; they end regularly with "s" /z/, but also undergo internal vowel change or delete the final consonant

— say → says /sei/ → /sez/
— do → does /du:/ → dʌz/
— have → has /hæv/ → /hæz/

Even "BE" can be regarded as regular insofar as its third person singular form likewise ends with "s" — "is" /iz/.

28.2 As pupils are by now familiar with the Continuous Aspect, the Simple Aspect can be drilled in the form of contrasts with the corresponding Continuous pattern. The rule for the Simple Aspect in Grades 5 and 6 is HABIT, PERMANENT SITUATION, ETERNAL TRUTH. The future, narrative, demonstrative etc. meanings are not taught at this stage.
Example: "I speak Hebrew at home, but now I am speaking English".

28.3 The Simple and Continuous Aspects can be drilled with Transitive and Intransitive verbs alike.

Pattern 29: "Private (Stative) Verbs"

29.1 These verbs of sensation and state indicate situation rather than action. They do not occur in the Continuous Aspect and so cannot be drilled in the form of contrasts between the two Aspects. They are also called "non-conclusive verbs" or "non-progressive verbs" by some linguists.

A full list of such verbs appears in every reputable grammar book; verbs of this category which will probably occur in the vocabulary for Grades 5 and 6 are:

be, hear, have, like, see, think, want, know, belong, understand.

Examples: "I see you now. I hear you now. I have a book now. I know the answer now. I want my breakfast now. I understand."

29.2 *Homonyms*

Occasionally, an apparently "private" verb does occur in the Continuous Aspect. In this case, it has a slightly different meaning and does not express sensation or state:

Examples: "I think so now". = It is my opinion, a state.
"I am thinking now". = I am activating my brain.
"I am seeing him now." = I am interviewing him.
"I have time." = possession.
"I am having breakfast." = eating.
"You are being foolish." = behaviour.

Pattern 30: The Present Simple Tense — negative

Sentence Pattern: Subject + carrier "DO" + "NOT" + Base ± Object, etc. The contracted forms are "DON'T" and "DOESN'T" — /dount/, /dʌznt/. The negative carrier "DON'T" has already been met as part of the Negative Imperative.

Examples of the Negative:

"I do not/don't know. He does not/doesn't know."
"I do not/don't have a book. He does not/doesn't have a book."

Pattern 31: The Present Simple Tense — "yes/no" interrogative

Sentence Pattern: carrier "DO" + Subject + Base ± Object, etc., with rising intonation.

Examples: Do you have a book? Does he have a book?

Short answers are thoroughly drilled as was done with the "yes/no" interrogative of the Present Continuous (Pattern 21); a short answer in the Present Simple consists of the sentence adverb "yes" or "no", the Subject and the

carrier "DO" in the positive or negative forms. The negative is usually in the contracted form.
Examples: Do you live here? Yes, I do. No, I don't.

Pattern 32: The Present Tense — interrogative with "WH" pronoun

See Patterns 6 and 7 (Linking Verb) and 22 (Present Continuous) for the main grammatical principles underlying this Pattern (e.g. non-inverted word order).
Sentence Patterns:

32.1 Interrogative Pronoun (Subject) + Verb ± Object, etc.
Examples: "Who wants to do this?"
"Who likes chocolate?"

Note that the non-inverted word order does not require the use of the carrier "DO"; in fact, many Hebrew-speakers over-generalize the interrogative use of "DO" and tend to insert it in this Pattern. Teachers should be on their guard against this tendency. A further difficulty lies in the fact that the speaker is required to use "DO" in a short answer, e.g. "Who knows the answer? I do."

32.2 Interrogative Pronoun (Object) + "DO" + Subject + Base etc.
Examples: Who do you know in this class?
What do you learn in that lesson?

See paragraph 22.3 for "WHO" and "WHAT" as the pronominal Object.

Pattern 33: The Present Tense — interrogative "WH-" adverb

See Patterns 8 (Linking Verb) and 23 (Present Continuous) for the main grammatical principles underlying this Pattern.
Sentence Pattern:
Interrogative Adverb + carrier "DO" + Subject + Base ± Object, etc.
Example: Where do you live?

Note the inverted word order.

GRAMMAR PATTERNS FOR GRADE 6

See the introductory notes to the grammar patterns for Grade 5. Some patterns may be left to Grade 7, at the discretion of the teacher or course-writer.

Pattern 34: Grammatical Subject: "It is..." (also see Pattern 134)

34.1 Sentence Pattern:
Positive — IT IS + Adjective ("It's hot.")
+ Participle ("It's raining" — a Present Continuous form)

This construction is mostly found with adjectives and participles referring to the weather.

+ Noun ("It's David".)
+ Pronoun ("It's me.")
+ Time Expression ("It's one o'clock.")
+ Expression of Distance ("It's five kilometres.")

These last four examples are anaphoric uses answering questions such as "Who is it?" or "What time is it?" (U.S. The British usage is "What is the time?") or "How far is it?", where again "IT IS" appears as a grammatical subject Function (Structure) word.

Negative	—	IT ISN'T
Interrogative	—	IS IT . . . ?
Contracted form	—	IT'S . . .

N.B. The verb is always in the singular, whether the "real" Subject is singular or plural (e.g. "It's David and John").

34.2 Pattern 34 is a "grammatical subject" (see Pattern 24), meaningless in itself, and followed by the "logical" or "real" Subject; it is sometimes called "Preparatory IT" or "PRO-SUBJECT". Its use is obligatory when the real Subject is an infinitive or a Noun-clause ("it's nice to see you; it's a good thing that you came").

The essential rule for "THERE IS" and "IT IS" is that a full English sentence requires a Subject before the Main Verb; if for some reason the Subject is omitted or placed after the verb, a "dummy" Subject is placed in Subject position instead. Hebrew has a freer word-order and does not use this grammatical device, so that the Hebrew speaker will tend not to use this "IT" at all in the positive but will use "זה" in the negative and interrogative. Thus, מי שם? דוד (It's David). דוד? לא, אין זה דוד. (No, *it's* not David).
האם זה דוד? (Is it David?). *

34.3 Examples of this Pattern were probably met early in the course, when teaching the time and the weather, but there they were separate items treated as entire semantic units (i.e. idioms). At this stage, the rule is imparted

* An alternative approach in this Pattern is to see "IT" as a kind of anaphoric pronoun referring to an understood (but not expressed) concept in the underlying conceptual structure or situation; thus, "it's hot" might refer to "the weather is hot" and "who is it?" might refer conceptually to "who is this person?". In fact, Hebrew speakers would tend to say "who is this?". The varying analyses of this form largely depend on whether and how far semantics is considered a part of grammar.

Pattern 35: The Past Tense, Simple Aspect

35.1 The Past Simple Tense is taught only as an expression of past time; neither the Indirect Speech nor the Conditional/Wishes uses of the past tense are taught at this stage. For the sake of simplicity of exposition, the explanations below refer to the verb paradigm; but the pattern is drilled syntagmatically. In teaching the Past Simple Tense, the Noun-Phrase (NP) pattern" "---AGO" can also be usefully introduced, as well as adverbs of past time reference.

35.2 The "regular" past-tense suffix is spelt "ED" or "D" (alveolar plosive).

35.2.1 The suffix is pronounced /t/, the voiceless alveolar plosive, when the final phoneme of the base is a voiceless consonant that is not an alveolar plosive.

Examples: stopped
liked
touched
passed
laughed
washed

35.2.2 The suffix is pronounced /d/, the voiced alveolar plosive, when the final phoneme of the base is a vowel or a voiced consonant that is not an alevolar plosive.

Examples: closed
judged
stayed
loved

There is some overlap between /t/ and /d/, which is also reflected in the variant spellings. Thus "learned" /lə:nd/ or "learnt" /lə:nt/ and "dreamed" /dri:md/ or "dreamt" /dremt/ are both correct, as are "spelled" /speld/ or "spelt" /spelt/. The final phoneme of the base in those overlaps is always the voiced lateral /l/ or the alevolar nasals /m/ and /n/. The forms "learnt" and "spelt" etc. are orthographically irregular.

25.2.3The suffix is pronounced /id/, as an additional syllable, when the final phoneme of the base is an alveolar plosive, /t/ or /d/; e.g. wanted /wɔntid/, needed /ni:did/.

35.3 Other paradigmatic subclasses (i.e. "irregular" verbs).

Most of these other forms are not "irregular" but belong to their own morphological subparadigm. However, the number of these other verbs is so small (about 140) and their criteria so complicated and mutually conflicting (e.g.

'drink — drank', but 'think — thought') that each verb is best taught as a separate item. Teachers interested in the morphological details and the paradigmatic classification are referred to books on Linguistics and to linguistically-orientated grammars.

The five subclasses of these so-called "irregular" verbs are —

35.3.1 *No change from the Present*

e.g. cut → cut

Linguists regard this phenomenon as the zero allomorph of the "past" morpheme. On the other hand, it is to be noted that all members of this subclass already end with the alveolar plosives /t/ and /d/, which are of course the "regular" past-tense suffix ; however, the reverse does not apply — not all bases ending with an alveolar plosive belong to this subclass.

35.3.2 *Various Forms of Vowel Change*

e.g. break → broke

Some linguists regard this variant of the past tense morpheme as a "replacive" allomorph of the past morpheme {D}: /ou/ replaces /ei/, in this example.

Others see it as the "vowel change" exponent of the abstract "past" morpheme.

35.3.3 *Vowel Change + Alveolar Plosive Suffix*

e.g.	say	said	/sei/	/sed/	
	do	did	/du:/	/did/	
	keep	kept	/ki:p/	/kept/	
	hear	heard	/hiə/	/hə:d/	in some varieties of English
	buy	bought	/bai/	/bɔ:t/	

Insofar as the past tense ends with the suffix /t/d/, this subclass follows the rule for the formation of the past tense.

35.3.4 *Changes in the Final Consonant ± Internal Vowel Change*

35.3.4.1 *No vowel change*

eg.	send	sent	/d/	/t/
	make	made	/k/	/d/
	have	had	/v/	/d/

The past tense ending is thus the regular alveolar plosive /t/ or /d/.

35.3.4.2 *With vowel changes*

e.g.	teach	taught
	catch	caught
	bring	brought

Here again, the past tense ending is the regular alveolar plosive /t/, although it is preceded by a vowel (see 35.2.2).

N.B. The verb 'stand" undergoes vowel change and the loss of the medial consonant in the past-tense transformation: stand → stood /stænd/ → /stud/.

' "BE" and "GO" are the two cases of "suppletion" in English and as such are undoubtedly irregular. Etymologically, "WENT" belongs to the same subclass as "SEND" and so can be regarded as, in a sense, regular in the tense formation but irregular in the base. "BE" is the only verb in English which distinguishes singular and plural in the past tense ("was/were"), just as it is the only verb which has a form for the base different from that of the Simple tense, which distinguishes first, second, and third persons in the Present tense, and which distinguishes singular and plural in the first person of the present tense. However, the present and past participles do follow the conventional patterns.

Pattern 36: The Past Tense, Simple aspect — negative (Patterns 36 and 37 are sometimes taught in Grade 7 only, or are introduced for recognition purposes in Grade 6 and for active productive use in Grade 7)
Sentence Pattern: Subject (NP) + "DID NOT" (DIDN'T) + Base, etc. The only exception is BE (Linking Verb) → WAS/WERE + NOT + Complement. "HAVE" is still regarded as a regular reflected verb ("I did not have...") at this stage.

Pattern 37: The Past Tense, Simple Aspect — interrogative

The "YES/NO" interrogative, "WH-" pronoun and "WH-" adverb interrogative are taught, according to the principles outlined in Patterns 31-33, with "DID" replacing "DO/DOES".

Pattern 38: Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases (prepositional phrases modifying verbs)

38.1 Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases are taught in Grades 5 and 6 as separate items, with stress laid on word order rules. The affixation pattern of "Adjective + ly" is best left till Grade 7.

38.2 *Some word-order rules for adverbs*

38.2.1 Adverbs of time, place, and manner usually come after the Object: for the sake of emphasis, time or place (but not more than one) may take Sentence-initial position. In general, adverbs have more mobility of position than other Parts of Speech. An adverb of place normally precedes an adverb of time — *"I saw him there yesterday"*. Although some grammarians specify that adverbs of manner (e.g. "well", "slowly") precede those of place and time, it is generally

considered that adverbs of manner are not inherently placed. An adverb hardly ever occurs between Verb and Object.

38.2.2 Adverbs of "frequency" and other pre-verb adverbs (e.g. "often", "scarcely") are not taught at this stage.
38.2.3 Some adverbs regularly take Sentence-initial position. They are often called "sentence modifiers" or "sentence connectors" or "sentence adverbs" since they modify the whole of the following sentence rather than the verb. Occasionally, they occupy sentence-final position. Examples: *then, so, however, of course, certainly.*

38.2.4 The above notes about adverbs refer also to adverbial phrases (prepositional phrases) and to "adverbial nouns" (e.g. "yesterday", "home" in "I got home yesterday").

Pattern 39: "Going To" to indicate future time

39.1 Teachers should break away from the old textbook conception of "SHALL/WILL" as *the* future tense. Most modern approaches begin treating future time with "GOING TO": although it is an over-generalization to equate "GOING TO" with future time, it is nevertheless the most common verbal form with future-time reference.

39.2 *"GOING TO"* refers to
39.2.1 the future of intention, e.g. "I am going to write a letter."
39.2.2 the future of certainty, e.g. "It is going to rain."

39.3 *Sentence Pattern*
Subject (NP) + Auxiliary BE + GO + suffix -ING + TO + BASE ± Object, etc. The negative and interrogative forms follow the same pattern as the Present Continuous Tense, e.g. "Are you going to see him? Yes I am."

39.4 The GOING TO future is a catenative or "chain" verb formed by the Present Continuous of "GO" and obligatorily followed by another underlying sentence which is represented by "TO" + Base etc. It should not be confused with the regular use of the Present Continuous of the Intransitive verb "GO". Thus, "I am going to Tel Aviv tomorrow" is not the GOING TO future, but the future meaning of the Present Continuous tense, while "I am going to Tel Aviv" merely indicates incomplete duration; neither of them is followed by the TO + BASE (infinitive) form. They are of course perfectly legitimate grammatical patterns but the GOING TO future must be followed by the base — "I am going to go to Tel Aviv" in this case.

Pattern 40: Linking Verbs other than "Be" (sometimes called "Inchoative Verbs")

40.1 These verbs are similar in syntactic behaviour to the Linking Verb "BE", but differ from it semantically. The "inchoative verbs" signify a process or indicate a perception or sensation, rather than merely "link" Subject and Complement. However, many grammar books class these verbs as Linking Verbs and indeed a grammatical test for inchoative verbs is the substitutability of BE.

Process Verbs: get (meaning "become"), become, grow, stay, turn, go.

Perception Verbs: appear, feel, look, seem, smell, sound, taste. The teacher should know the rules involved, even though he teaches the verbs concerned as separate items.

40.2 *Sentence Pattern*:

Subject (NP) + Inchoative Verb + Complement.

See notes to Pattern 1 for definitions of (Subject) Complement.

Inchoative verbs are followed by a noun or adjective.

Examples: He is getting fat.
He is growing old.
He turned red.
He feels good.
He became a teacher.
The machine went wrong.

American English restricts the use of "appear, look, seem" to Adjective Complements only (e.g. "That looks good"), whereas British English allows them to be followed by a noun also ("This looks/seems/appears a nice orange"). Some of these verbs may interpose the preposition "LIKE" before the Noun Complement, e.g. "This feels/looks/seems like gold." "This smells/tastes/sounds like...", in American and British usage.

40.3 *Homonyms*

Some of these verbs are double or even triple homonyms, e.g.

SMELL — Inchoative: "The dog smells good."
— Intransitive: "The dog smells well."
— Transitive: "The dog smells me."

Others in this category are TASTE, FEEL, TURN, GROW, SOUND.

Pattern 41: Modal: Can

41.1 Modals are Auxiliary Verbs that combine with the base form of the verb (i.e. without "TO") to modify the meaning of the base. Their syntax is simple but the numerous and differing meanings of the Modals constitute a considerable learning problem. In the Primary School the Modals CAN and WILL are taught, in the present tense only.

41.2 Syntactic Characteristics of the Modals

(i) They do not add the suffix "-s" in the third person present singular, nor do they occur in the Continuous Aspect;

(ii) They form their negative without the carrier "DO", but simply add "NOT" or "N'T";

(iii) They form their interrogative by inversion with the Subject, without the carrier "DO";

(iv) In the short answer form ("Code", "Echo in Repetition"), the Modal is repeated ("Yes, I can".).

(v) They may be stressed for emphatic affirmation ("I *can* go.").

Some linguists see a Verb-Phrase with a Modal as a combination of two underlying sentences (a Generalized Transformation), e.g. "I can see" = "I can"+ "I see". The only exception is "WILL" in its future meaning.

41.3 *CAN*-meanings

The following meanings of this Modal are taught —

"I can hear you. (= I am able to – –) Hebrew: אני יכול

"You can go home now". (=you may/are permitted to – – –) Hebrew: אתה יכול / מותר לך.

"We can speak English". (= we know how to – –) Hebrew: אנחנו יודעים לדבר

Negative: "I cannot/can't hear you"; etc.

Interrogative: "Can I go now?"

Short answer: "Can you hear him? Yes, I can. / No, I can't."

41.4 *The Pronunciation of CAN*

In the positive pattern, CAN is pronounced /kn/, unless it is stressed for emphatic affirmation ("But I *can* /kæn/ speak English!"). In the interrogative, both forms are found — "Can I go now? = /kn/ or /kæn/. In short answers or in general before a pause, only the "strong form" is used — "Yes I can" /kæn/.

Pattern 42: Modal "Will" (future)

42.1 WILL is morphologically a Modal like CAN etc. and behaves syntactically in the same way (except in Conditional Clauses, which are not taught at this stage). Some grammarians see WILL as the "pure" future tense. Others see it as a double homonym, one a modal and the other a future tense, whilst yet others see it as a present-tense Modal with the future as its most frequent meaning. All Modals have a future reference (e.g. "Can I go there tomorrow?"), as indeed do the Present Simple and Present Continuous Aspects. See the article "Teaching Grammar as Part of Meaningful Communication" in this book.

42.2 WILL is taught at this stage to express

(i) futurity (but suggesting promise or inevitability).
e.g. "He will arrive tomorrow."

(ii) volition, e.g. "I will help you." This use is especially common in the second person interrogative, where it can be interpreted as a polite request, e.g. "Will you open the window?"

The other meanings of WILL (characteristic, induction, probability, insistence) are not taught at this stage; note that in Conditional Clauses WILL in the simple futurity meaning does not occur after "IF" but may do so in the volition meaning ("if you will do this, I will do that"). Conditional Clauses are taught in Grade 9.

42.3 The distinction between SHALL and WILL in terms of first person as against second and third persons is very restricted in English. Most dialects use WILL for all persons, and teachers are advised to adopt this simple formula:

Declarative: I, etc. + WILL ± NOT + Base...
Interrogative: WILL + I, etc. + Base...
Contracted forms: Positive — I'll
Negative — I won't (more rarely, "I'll not")

Short answer or Echo: Yes, I will. / No, I won't. (N.B. No contracted forms in positive Short Answers)

42.2 The so-called "Coloured Future" (I will, You/They shall, etc.) of command, promise or prohibition is likewise very restricted; in the later stages of the English course, the various uses of SHALL are met as recognition (passive knowledge) items. The interrogative "SHALL I...?" meaning an offer or a suggestion ("Shall I open the window for you?"), can be introduced in the Primary School as an idiom or formula.

Pattern 43: The Comparison of Adjectives

This Pattern deals with the degrees of adjectives — equality, comparison and superlativeness. However, teachers should not feel obliged to teach them together; they would tend to occur in different situations and only in somewhat artificial textbook surroundings do people actually compare all three degrees.

43.1 *The Equality Degree*
Pattern: AS + Adjective + AS. Unstressed pronunciation /əz/
Negative: NOT AS + Adjective + AS or NOT SO + Adjective + AS

43.2 *The Comparative Degree*, comparing two unequal objects, etc.

Pattern: Adjective + Suffix -ER + THAN (conjunction or preposition); MORE (Intensifier) + Adjective + THAN

To show a relationship of inferiority, use LESS... THAN or the negative equality degree (NOT SO/AS... AS).

Monosyllable adjectives (and adverbs) add "ER" (except "right, wrong, real"), as may disyllabics stressed finally ("sevére, polite") or ending with a vowel ("yellow"); disyllabic adjectives ending in "y" change the "y" to "i" and add "er" (e.g. "pretty"). Most other disyllabics stressed on the first syllable and adjectives of three syllables use the "MORE ... THAN" construction, as do all adjectives only used predicatively ("asleep, alive"). Some linguists might not regard "asleep" and "alive" as adjectives.

43.3 *The Superlative Degree*, comparing three or more objects, etc.

Pattern: THE + Adjective + suffix EST ± OF
THE + Most + Adjective ± OF

Adjectives and adverbs which formed their comparative by ER form their superlative by EST: those using MORE for the comparative use MOST for the superlative.

The superlative represents the relatively highest degree, not the absolutely highest — it may be the comparative from a different viewpoint:
e.g. "He was older than the others" may mean the same as "He was the oldest". One also finds "the best of two" in everyday usage.

43.4 *Irregular constructions*

Teachers should ensure that pupils are thoroughly aware of the irregular comparative and superlative forms where they occur in the lexicon (e.g. good—better—best).

43.5 Structuralist linguists classify 'adjectives' as words capable of receiving the ER-EST inflectional suffix or alternatively claim that the Comparative and Superlative are formed by the suffixes ER/EST only. They argue, for example, that the word "beautiful" is either (i) an adjective which has no grammatical comparative or superlative forms but expresses semantic comparison by the use of the intensifiers MORE and MOST or (ii) is not an adjective at all, since it does not inflect for comparison. Instead, it is categorized as an "Adjectival" and all word-classes (parts-of-speech) are either "morphological" (inflected, e.g. Adjectives) or "syntactic" (uninflected, e.g. Adjectivals). Other linguists would argue that Comparison is an abstract grammatical characteristic which may be phonologically realized by morphological inflection (ER/EST) or by syntactic

structure words (MORE/MOST). The dispute may seem rather academic, but indicates the rigorous approach of modern linguistics. It also suggests that in English it is syntactic behaviour that counts, not morphological.

Pattern 44: Noun Genitive (the boy's hat ; the boys' hats. Note : the man's hat ; the men's hats)

Noun genitives were met early in the course (Pattern 16) as discrete items in the substitution table drilling possessive pronouns.

44.1 Although the genitive case of the noun serves to indicate any close relationship ("my friend's death"), its main reference is still possessive. Accordingly, it tends not to be used for inanimates, unless metaphorically ("Jerusalem's sunset") or for expressions of time and measure ("yesterday's newspaper", "a 100 metres' race").

44.2 The singular genitive is expressed by 's in writing, in speech by /z/s/iz/ according to the same phonological rules underlying the use of the third person singular of the Present Simple Tense or the plural of nouns. Where the noun plural does not end with "s", the genitive ending is 's ("children's"); where it already ends with "s", there is no phonological expression of the genitive, only the graphological one of an apostrophe after the plural.

44.3 Note the "Absolute Genitive" (also called the "Elliptical Genitive") "Go to the doctor's", "At my aunt's" — where the Head-word modified by the genitive noun has been deleted ("go to the doctor's clinic", "at my aunt's house").

44.4 *The Periphrastic Genitive (NP + OF + NP) e.g. "A cup of tea"*

A prepositional phrase governed by OF may replace the Genitive ; it is obligatory for inanimate objects, other than the exceptions noted in 44.1. With animates, it serves to avoid a complicated series of apostrophes or for purposes of emphasis.

Pattern 45: The Predicative Possessive Pronoun

"mine, yours, his, hers, its (rare), ours, theirs".

45.1 This pronoun may be the Subject-Complement of the Linking Verb ("That's mine."); the Object of a preposition — "That looks like mine," or even "This book of mine", where the possessive pronoun is the Object of the possessive preposition (double genitive!); or the Object of a Transitive Verb ("I want yours.").

45.2 Teachers might find it useful to drill this form in contrast with the attributive possessive pronoun (my, your, etc.), sometimes called "the Possessive Adjective", e.g. "This is my book. This book is mine."

Pattern 46: Short Additions (Echo)

Only those Echoes showing positive agreement are taught in the Primary School; patterns of negative agreement ("I don't either.") are taught in Grade 8.
Sentence Pattern: NP + Auxiliary +TOO

Examples: I + do/can/will + too.

This form with its regular word order construction, is to be preferred at this stage to the alternative inverted word-order construction ("So do I". — Pattern 80). Note the use of "DO" as the substitute for a Main Verb without a Modal in the "stimulus" sentence: I know English. We do too.

Pattern 47: The Indefinite Pronouns — "One / Ones"

47.1 This pronoun replaces countable nouns and can itself be modified by a demonstrative, determiner or adjective preceding, and a prepositional phrase following:

Examples: "I like this blue one with the..."
"...these blue ones..."

47.2 Since the indefinite third person singular personal pronoun "ONE" (no plural) is restricted to hyper-formal use, it should not be taught (e.g. "One goes there." "It disturbs one"). Instead, use the second and third person plural pronouns for the Subject ("You/They go...") and the first person for the Object ("It disturbs me/us.").

Pattern 48: Ordinal Numbers

First, second...

Cardinal numbers were taught early in the course. Note that ordinal numbers need "THE" or a possessive determiner ("MY" etc.), except in aphoristic sentences and phrases — "First come, first served".

Pattern 49: First Person Imperative

49.1 Sentence Pattern:: LET US (LET'S) + Base.
Negative: DON'T LET'S + Base/LET'S NOT + Base.

"DON'T LET'S is recommended, since it parallels the second person Negative Imperative ("Don't go!").

Distinguish between this pattern and the word "LET" in Pattern 50. Here "LET'S" is a function word (or phrase) indicating the first person imperative and suggesting common action.

49.2 Undoubtedly, many examples of this pattern will have been met earlier in the form of separate items: the rule is now learnt and the examples generalized.

Pattern 50: Let + NP + Base

Example: "Let him go."

Here "LET", meaning "allow", is the normal second person imperative but is followed by a noun or pronoun and then the Base form alone witthout "TO".

Pattern 51: Negation of the Object

Sentence Pattern: NP + V + "NO" + NP

51.1 In a sense, the determiner (the negative article) "NO" negates the Noun-Object rather than the Verb and serves to emphasis the negated NP-Object rather than the activity. It is commonly found with the verbs "HAVE" ("I have no money") and "BE" ("It is no use"), but may occur with other verbs also ("I saw no people there").

51.2 "No" is compounded with "one", "body", or "thing" and substitutes the bound morpheme "some", i.e.

someone	no-one
something	nothing
somebody	nobody

It also substitutes the bound morpheme "any" when preceded by the negated verb ("I didn't see anybody" = "I saw nobody"), but this pattern is not taught till Grade 7.

These pronouns ("no-one, nothing, nobody") can be the Subject and the Object in a sentence; in both cases, the verb is in the positive. A common feature of substandard Modern English is the "double negative" — * "I didn't see nobody.", and pupils might be tempted to make this mistake through the interference of Hebrew patterns (or hearing sub-standard English on the Television or from "pop" songs).

Pattern 52: The Indirect Object Patterns

Sentence Pattern: Subject (NP) + Verb + Indirect Object (NP) + Direct Object (NP).

Examples:

I	gave	him	the book.
I	told	him	the story.
I	bought	him	the book.

This pattern is taught as a transformation of the prepositional phrase with "to" or "for", e.g. "I gave the book to him"; "I bought the book for him"; intensive drill has to be undertaken since the Hebrew speaker will be tempted to use a prepositional form instead of the objective case. Because of these

problems of Mother-Tongue interference, teachers might do well to concentrate only on those sentence-patterns which are transformations of the "TO" prepositional phrase (e.g. "I sent/gave/wrote him a letter.") and to leave the "FOR" transformation to Grade 7.

There is a certain mobility of word-order where both the Indirect Object and the Direct Object are pronouns ("Give it her. Give her it.") but where the Direct Object is a noun, the Indirect Object always precedes, as in the sentence patterns above.

Some grammar books also posit a Pattern of two Direct Objects, e.g. "I taught him the answers. I asked him a quesuon". Here the transformation would not be from a prepositional phrase but derived from two underlying sentences — "I asked him" + "I asked a question." However, they can also be viewed as deriving from prepositional phrases — "I asked a question of him. I taught the answers to him."

Pattern 53: Catenatives ("Chain" Verbs): Subject (NP) + Verb + Infinitive

A catenative verb requires another verb to complete its meaning: the infinitive (TO + Base) is the Object of the Verb.

Examples: I want to go. (The "Object + Infinitive" pattern with this verb — "I want you to go" — is not taught in Grade 6).

I hope to go.

Note: the GOING TO future was regarded in Pattern 39 as a Catenative verb; this means that the verb "GO" used in the Continuous and meaning "intention" or "certainty" is transitive.

Pattern 54: Contracted Form of the Negative of "Be"

For initial teaching purposes, the contracted negative of BE was presented as NP + BE-NOT (e.g. He isn't.).

The other form is now introduced, NP-BE + NOT (He's not.).

Pattern 55: Agent-Noun Derived from Verbs

This pattern can be introduced incidentally and not in any specific sequence; it is a morphological and not a syntactic structure. An Agent-Noun (one who performs an activity) is derived from the verb by the suffix /ə/ "-er". Transformational grammarians view it as derived from an underlying sentence ("He teaches" → "a teacher").

The regular spelling is -ER but some -OR (visitor, sailor, governor) and -AR (liar) forms are also found; when the verb is spelt with a final "e", only "r" is added. Not every verb forms an "agent-noun" in this manner; thus, there is no word "livers" meaning "people who live".

Pattern 56 : More Prepositional Patterns

56.1 Place and Position

OFF	He fell off the table.
AROUND	They ran around the room.
BETWEEN	He sat between his mother and father. (BETWEEN refers to two objects but note the idioms "Between these four walls. Between you, me and the gatepost.")
AMONG	I found my book among the others. (Surrounded by)
OVER	The airplane is now over our heads. (up in a perpendicular direction)
NEAR	Stand near the table!
BEHIND	He stood behind the table. ("In back of" is found in some American varieties of English)
IN FRONT OF	The teacher stood in front of the class. (BEFORE is rather literary)
ALONG	We walked along the road. (following the length of)
FAR FROM	Ramat Gan is not far from Tel Aviv. Is it far from here? ("far from" occurs most frequently in questions or negatives)
NEXT TO	David sits next to Edna. (immediate vicinity)

56.2 *Direction*

THROUGH	He threw the ball through the window.
ACROSS	He walked across the road.

OFF, AROUND, OVER as above

56.3 *Time*

BEFORE	He arrived before 10 a.m.
AFTER	He arrived after 10 a.m.

56.4 *Possession or other intimate relationship*

OF	the legs of the table ; a cup of tea.

56.5 *Others*

LIKE	He speaks English like a native. (resemblance)
FOR	I got the book for you. (purpose)
ABOUT	It's about 5 o'clock. (approximately)
	Let's read about him. (concerning)
WITHOUT	He went without us. (absence of accompaniment)

SYLLABUS FOR GRADE 7

Grammar work in Grade 7 will be mainly concerned with expanding the patterns taught in Grades 5 and 6 and applying them to new situations. This expansion of familiar patterns necessitates an initial consolidation of the grammar taught in the Primary School.

In addition, some new patterns are introduced during the year. Some of these structures will already have been met incidentally in the Primary School and possibly learnt passively, for recognition purposes; in this case, they are now studied intensively to become part of the pupil's active grammatical inventory.

New Structures:

Pattern 57: Quantifiers

Quantifiers are a subclass of the class of DETERMINERS. Other subclasses are ARTICLES and DEMONSTRATIVES. Usually, these sub-classes may replace each other in a substitution table but do not co-occur. As the name suggests, "QUANTIFIERS" provide information about numbers and quantities; the various quantifiers may be classified grammatically by their different potentionality of occurrence with countable and uncountable nouns, singular and plural.

57.1 SOME

"Some" may occur before plural countable nouns, indicating an unspecified plural number. Thus, the indefinite singular articles A/AN may have the zero article or the quantifier "SOME" as their plural:

e.g. singular: "I bought an apple".
plural: "I bought some apples" or "I bought apples".

"I bought apples" has a contrastive meaning — "apples" rather than "oranges" — whereas "I bought some apples" is non-contrastive. This use of the word "some" is pronounced /səm/, not /sʌm/. In "something", somebody", "some of my friends", "some" is pronounced /sʌm/.

57.2 *ANY*

"ANY" replaces "SOME" in negative sentences and in quasi-negative sentences (not taught in Grade 7) with "hardly, rarely".

e.g. "I bought some apples" → "I didn't buy any apples".

"ANY" usually replaces "SOME" in interrogative sentences (and in Conditional Clauses, taught in Grade 9) e.g. "Did you buy any apples?"

"SOME" may occur in an interrogative sentence when the expected answer is affirmative; "ANY" is neutral in this regard. It is recommended to teach only the "ANY" interrogative.

e.g. "Is anyone at home?"
"Is someone at home?"

The "SOME/ANY" transformation applies to adverbs and pronouns also.
e.g. SOMEONE → ANYONE
SOMEWHERE → ANYWHERE

N.B. Stressed "SOME"' + Singular countable ("There's some man to see you".) should not be taught at this stage.

57.3 *NOT ... ANY → NO*

See the Primary Syllabus "Negation of the Object" (Pattern 51).

Grammatically, a sentence such as "I have no time" might be described as possessing a negated object, with "I don't have any time" as a negated verb, but semantically they are synonyms. To avoid confusion, teachers are advised not to teach "ANY" in its affirmative ("indiscriminate reference") meaning, e.g. "Anybody can do that", but to restrict themselves to EVERY/EACH (see 57.6).

57.4 *A LOT OF/LOTS OF (synonyms); MANY/MUCH*

These quantifiers refer to a larger quantity than "SOME" does. Many grammar books ignore the "A LOT OF/LOTS OF" construction completely and instead teach only "MANY/MUCH", but informal usage prefers "A LOT OF/LOTS OF" for Countables and Non-Countables alike. "MANY/MUCH" are somewhat formal and literary. Furthermore, they are usually found in a negative or interrogative sentence rather than in an affirmative one -- "MUCH" is hardly ever found in an affirmative sentence.

"MANY" is used with Countable nouns; "MUCH" with Uncountables.
e.g. "I bought a lot of apples" (or "lots of apples") — Countable plural noun;
"I bought a lot of chocolate" (or "lots of chocolate") — Uncountable noun;
but "I bought many apples" or more commonly "I didn't buy many apples" — Countable plural noun; and "I didn't buy much chocolate" — Uncountable noun.

However, MANY/MUCH are the only forms occurring in the interrogative phrases "HOW MUCH?" (answer: a Quantifier + Uncountable noun)
"HOW MANY?" (answer: a Quantifier or numeral + a Countable plural noun).
Note: "many a time" (i.e. "many" plus singular). Hebrew: לא פעם אחת

57.5 *A LITTLE / A FEW; LITTLE/FEW*

"A LITTLE/LITTLE" collocate (regularly co-occur) with Uncountables, "A FEW/FEW" with Countables. There is no grammatical connection between the Quantifier "a little" (as in "I drank a little water") and the Indefinite Article + Adjective ("I bought a little apple"). "A LITTLE / A FEW"

have a positive reference, "LITTLE / FEW have a somewhat negative or deprecatory implication. Thus, "I have a few friends" is a matter for congratulation, "I have few friends" for condolence.

57.6 *EVERY/EACH*

EVERY + singular noun refers to the single members of a group but emphasizes the collective, whereas EACH + singular noun focuses on the individual.

57.7 *ALL (OF)*

This Quantifier was met in Grades 5 and 6 ; it is a Pre-Article and collocates with Countables and Uncountables alike.

57.8 *BOTH (OF)*

This Quantifier is likewise a Pre-Article, collocating with a group of two members only.

57.9 *"SOME" with Uncountable nouns* (pronounced /səm/)

See Pattern 13, Primary Syllabus

Uncountable nouns by definition have no plural, but "SOME" may be used to signify a quantity of the mass or abstract noun, a limited but unspecified amount,

e.g. "I bought some chocolate."
"I learnt some English".

57.10. *QUANTIFIERS AS NOUN-SUBSTITUTES*

The above Quantifiers act as a kind of pronoun or "noun-substitute". They may occur alone or together with the personal or indefinite pronouns.

e.g. "I bought some."
"I bought a lot."
"I bought a little/a few" ("I bought little/few" does not occur)
"I bought every one" (see the Primary Syllabus for "ONE/ONES")
"I bought all of them".

Pattern 58 : Reflexive Pronouns (—Self / —Selves)

Reflexive pronouns are the direct objects of transitive verbs, where the Direct Object is the same person or thing as the Subject ; they also occur as the Object of a preposition. Hebrew speakers tend either to under-use the reflexive construction or to over-generalize it, mistakingly identifying it with the "hitpa'el" under every circumstance. Pupils should therefore be taught the reflexive as a set of individual items rather than as the equivalent of a Hebrew construction.

Notice that the possessive form of the personal pronoun is used with the first and second persons, but the objective form with the third person; also that this is the only case where the second person plural is different from the second person singular in form:

> "myself, yourself, ourselves, yourselves" but "himself, itself, themselves" "Herself" has of course the same form in the objective and possessive cases.

BY + Reflexive

e.g. "I came by myself". This prepositional phrase means "alone". The emphatic" or "intensifier" meanings of this pronoun ("I did it myself", "He came himself") should not be taught at this stage in order not to arouse unnecessary confusion.

Pattern 59: "Have to" / "Had to" / "Will have to"

Examples: Affirmative — "I have to go"
Negative — "I don't have to go"
Interrogative — "Do I have to go?"

Semantically, HAVE TO is similar to a MODAL AUXILIARY but formally it is not a Modal, since it adds "-s" to the third person singular present, constructs its negative and interrogative forms with the carrier "DO", and can co-occur with Modals ("May have to/will have to" etc.). "HAVE TO" is therefore regarded by grammarians as a CATENATIVE ("chain") verb or as a SEMI-MODAL in view of the similarity of meaning with Modals.

HAVE TO is to be preferred to MUST in Grade 7, in order to avoid the confusion and misunderstanding arising from MUST NOT, which means "prohibition" and not "negation". Although some grammar books claim a difference of meaning between "HAVE TO" and "MUST" as "external" v. "internal" (moral) compulsion, most native speakers use these forms synonymously.

"I haven't to" is so rare as to be almost non-occurring but "Have I to...?" is found in formal usage but is not taught at this stage. In Grades 8 and 9, pupils will learn the "I'VE GOT TO...", "HAVE I GOT TO...?" forms, which have the same meaning as "HAVE TO" (Pattern 102).

Pattern 60: Manner Adverbs: Adjective + Suffix-ly

Most manner adverbs are of this type; there are a few constructed on a noun stem but they usually take a different suffix, e.g. "back*wards*, side*ways*, length*wise*.

Examples of ADJECTIVE + -LY are
"quiet — quietly"
"quick — quickly".

A few verbs have the same form as the corresponding adjective (e.g. "fast"), while the irregular "well" is the adverb of the irregular adjective "good".

See Pattern 61 for "Pre-Verbals" (Frequency Expressions).

Manner adverbs, like other adverbs, usually occur after the Verb Phrase. Place adverbs occur before Time adverbs ("I went there [Place] yesterday [Time]"), but Manner adverbs can precede or follow both Place and Time adverbs. The only exception is in the case of an intransitive verb of motion, where the adverb of place as a rule follows the verb immediately, e.g. "He went there (Adverb of Place) quickly (Adverb of Manner)."

Manner adverbs may answer the question-word "how?"

Pattern 61: Pre-Verbals (frequency adverbs)

Most pre-verbal adverbs are frequency expressions, a subclass of Adverbs of Time. Frequency expressions refer to the question "how often" rather than "when". If they consist of one word only, their preferred place is before the main verb; if the Verb Phrase contains an Auxiliary or Modal, the pre-verbal is placed between the Auxiliary or Modal and the Main Verb.
e.g. "I *often* see him" / "I can *often* see him".

Where the Main Verb is "BE", the frequency expression comes after the verb — "he is *often* here". If the frequency expression is to be emphasized, it can be placed before the Auxiliary or Modal; it always occurs before the Semi-Modal "HAVE TO".

If the frequency expression is a phrase, it follows the usual rule of Time-Adverb placing, at the very end of the sentence after all other adverbs — "I see him there *every day*" — or in sentence-initial position.

One-word frequency expressions may also occur finally — "I go there often".

Examples of Pre-Verbals (frequency expressions and others):

always	often	usually
sometimes	seldom (quasi-negative)	hardly (quasi-negative)
never	generally	

For "quasi-negatives" see Pattern 131 (taught in Grades 10-12).

Avoid the "emphatic" placing of one-word frequency expressions in sentence-initial position, with the resulting inversion of customary word order (e.g. "Never will I go there again").

Pattern 62: Negative Interrogative

So far, only affirmative questions have been taught, in order not to create too heavy a learning load for the pupil. However, in this third year of study he should learn and use the negative interrogative of all the patterns learnt hitherto, e.g. "Isn't he here?" "Don't you have to come?"

Pattern 63: Predicative Adjectives

In Grade 5, pupils studied the attributive and predicative placing of adjectives — "a *big* boy" (attributive), "the boy is *big*" (predicative). However, some adjectives are only used attributively (e.g. "main"), others only predicatively. In Grade 7 some of the predicative adjectives are taught, those that have the prefix "a-", e.g. awake (i.e. "The boy is awake"; never "An awake boy");

asleep
alive
afraid

Some grammarians prefer to regard these "a-" words as adverbs; yet others see them as a word-class of their own. These differing definitions result from the varying terms of reference or linguistic theories adopted; teachers consulting grammar books must be continuously aware of the fact that there is no overall agreed description of English grammar.

Pattern 64: Comparison of Adverbs

Monosyllabic adverbs are inflected for comparison in the same way as the homonymous adjective, e.g. "fast—faster—fastest".

Adverbs ending in the suffix "LY" usually form their comparative and superlative forms by "MORE/MOST" + Adverb.

Irregular adverbial comparison exists in the same way as with the corresponding adjectives.

e.g. well — better — best
e.g. badly — worse — worst

Pattern 65: Either / Neither . . . Or / Nor

Compound sentences with "AND" and "BUT" were taught in Grades 5 and 6; compound sentences with EITHER/NEITHER ... OR/NOR are taught in Grade 7, using the twin sentence-connectors "either" + sentence + or + sentence" or "neither + sentence + nor + sentence".

These words will likewise be taught as phrase-connectors — "Either you or I will go; he neither works nor plays". These phrases can also be viewed as underlying sentences. "Either/or" and "neither/nor" are more often found as phrase-connectors than as sentence-connectors.

Pattern 66: Verb Complementation: Non-Finite Clause Object — (Verb + Noun-Phrase (NP) + Infinitive)

This sentence-pattern with "WANT" etc. is taught in Grade 7.

Catenative	+ *NP*	+ *Verb-Phrase* (Infinitive ± NP)
want ask tell	him the guests everybody else	to go. to answer the questions.

While the above verbs operate within the same Sentence-Pattern in English, they constitute different problems for Hebrew speakers, each of the verbs mentioned forming a distinct sentence-pattern in Hebrew. Thus, teachers should drill this sentence-pattern very thoroughly and should make sure their pupils do not say * "want that he should go" or * "ask from him . . ." or * "tell to him . . .".

Expansion of Familiar Patterns

Patterns first taught in Grades 5 and 6 are reviewed and consolidated in Grade 7. In addition the situations and vocabulary selected will no doubt dictate an expansion of these structures. For example, new PREPOSITIONAL PATTERNS will be learnt, more INCHOATIVE and STATIVE verbs (see the Primary Syllabus Patterns 40 and 29) will be studied, the INDIRECT OBJECT construction will be more widely applied, and the interrogative pronouns "which" (definite) and "what" (indefinite) will be taught.

SYLLABUS FOR GRADES 8 AND 9

After the essential consolidation in Grade 7 Grammar studies, Grades 8 and 9 study a large number of major grammatical patterns. They will also study a number of minor patterns which involve using a pattern already familiar in a new secondary meaning (e.g. future reference of the present progressive); such patterns, which do not involve any considerable learning load, are classified as such in the following pages.

No dividing line is drawn between the patterns to be studied in Grade 8 and those for Grade 9; each class or course will proceed at its own pace. Nor does the listing here imply any strict and detailed sequence of teaching, but only a rough guide (e.g. to teach the Passive before the Perfect).

By the end of Grade 9, the pupil will have studied most of the more common grammatical patterns of English; he will very likely have met even more, for passive recognition. But it is important to realize that no attempt has been made to teach *all* the patterns of the language; considerable grammatical study is left to the Upper Division, where the less frequent structures (e.g. Modals + Perfect Base, Modals + Progressive Base), will be studied for the first time and more detailed treatment given to many of the patterns learnt in Grade 9 (e.g. Perfect Aspect, Conditional Clauses).

Teachers should still control and restrict their classroom grammatical usage to that recommended in this Syllabus, even where this may differ from their own speech habits.

Pattern 67: Be-Past + Verb Base + ING (Past Tense Progressive Aspect)

e.g. a) I *was reading* the newspaper, when he telephoned.
b) At 6 p.m. last night *I was reading.*
c) I *was reading* all morning.

Notice that the auxiliaries "was" and "were" are unstressed and so pronounced /wəz/ and /wə/, unless used emphatically, or contrastively, in which case the pronunciation is /wɔz/ as in "But I *was* reading", or in short answers — "I was". The use of this tense and aspect may involve complex sentences with temporal clauses. The temporal clause may be either Simple or Progressive (Continuous).

e.g. d) I was reading, when he *arrived.*
e) I was reading while he *was sleeping.*

The Past Progressive form is commonly used to indicate an interrupted past time activity: the subject was in the middle of an activity when something else occurred. Some element of contrast is involved (example a), although it need not be expressed — (What was he doing?) *"He was reading"*. On the other hand, it may indicate past time duration (example c), an activity in progress at a given point in the past (example b), or simultaneity of two activities (example e).

The following forms are taught:

Positive — He was reading a newspaper.
Negative — He was not (wasn't) reading a newspaper.
Yes/No Interrogative — Was he reading a newspaper?
WH-Interrogative — When was he reading a newspaper?

Pattern 68: Complex Sentences with Subordinate Temporal Clauses

Examples: I was reading when he came.
I always read when the evening comes.

Temporal conjunctions to be taught are:

WHEN...
WHILE...
BEFORE...
AFTER...

This pattern should be taught with present or past time reference only, in order to avoid having to teach the present tense with *future* time reference ("*When you come tomorrow*, we'll go to the cinema"), at this stage.

The use of traditional linguistic terminology, in calling this pattern a "complex sentence with a subordinate clause", does not imply any adherence to a given linguistic school. As stated before in this syllabus, English teachers must make themselves acquainted with the main ideas of modern linguistics, which present the scientific basis to their descriptions of the language. On the issue of the status of the clause, some linguists claim it as an independent unit, while others see it as an "included sentence" or "downgraded sentence".

Pattern 69: Modal "Could"

Before teaching "COULD", teachers should revise "CAN" in its meanings of *ability, permission* and *knowledge.*

COULD is the past tense form of CAN in all these meanings —

"He could speak French once". = knew how to.
"He could come" (His mother let him) = was permitted once but no longer so.
"He could hear you" = was able to.

However, the "past permission" meaning is rather rare, and teachers should concentrate on other meanings instead. See BE ABLE to — Pattern 78.

The "tentative" meanings of the past tense Modals, in which the past tense refers to present or future time, will not be taught actively at this stage but explained when met in reading.

e.g. a) "I could do it."
b) "Could I open the window?"

The "tentative" form is used for a less positive statement (example a), which may be interpreted as an implied condition ("I could do it, if asked"), or as a polite request for permission (example b).

The use of COULD in the sequence of tenses (e.g. Reported Speech and Unreal Contemporary (Hypothetical) Conditions) is taught at a later stage in the Intermediate Division (Patterns 92, 94).

Pattern 70: Modal "Must"

MUST has two meanings

— necessity — "You must see him at once."
— assumption — "He left last night; he must be there by now."

Teach both the positive and interrogative forms.

In the meaning of "necessity", HAVE TO is synonymous with MUST. HAVE TO was taught in Grade 7. The past and future references of HAVE TO (HAD TO and WILL HAVE TO) are also the past and future analogues of MUST. Like all the other Modals, MUST may have a future reference — "You must see him tomorrow".

The past time analogue of MUST meaning "assumption" (Modal + Perfect base — "You must have seen him") is not taught until the Upper Division (Pattern 123).

Notice that the interrogative of MUST normally is not a Yes/No question (SHOULD is more usual here) but implies a preferred negative answer ("Must I do it?" meaning "I hope not.").

Pattern 71: Modal "Mustn't", "Must Not"

MUSTN'T (MUST NOT) is a prohibition, not negated necessity or negated assumption. It is a very common error among learners of English as a foreign language to assume the relationship CAN: CAN'T, MUST: MUSTN'T. The negative analogue of MUST is "DON'T HAVE TO", "NEEDN'T" or "DON'T NEED TO".

e.g. "You must do it" = you have to do it.
"You don't have to do it" = there is no necessity. (לא צריך)
"You mustn't do it" = you are not allowed to do it. (אסור)

NOTE: The negative of MUST meaning "assumption" is CAN'T.

Pattern 72: Verb "Need" (Modal and Full Verb)

72.1 The Modal "NEED" is used only in present tense negative and interrogative structures:

— *"Need you go?"*, synonymous with "Must you go?", "Do you have to go?" and "Do you need to go?" (see below). However, "need you go?" is less common than the other forms — "do you have to go?" is the preferred form here, for pedagogical reasons.

— *"You needn't go"*, negative of "MUST", synonymous with "You don't have to go", and "You don't need to go" (see below).

72.2 In positive structures, "NEED" is a full verb, usually followed by a Noun Phrase — "You need a doctor."

The infinitive Object of the catenative verb "NEED" is more commonly found in the negative and interrogative than in the positive; there it is as frequent as the catenative (or "semi-modal") "DON'T HAVE TO" or the Modal "NEEDN'T".

As a full verb, "NEED" can also be used in the negative and interrogative; the use of the carrier DO is of course obligatory —

"You don't need a doctor."
"You don't need to go" (synonymous with the Modal "You need not go").
"Do you need a doctor?"
"Do you need to go" (synonymous with the Modal "Need you go?").

In the past, "NEED" is always a full verb ("I didn't need to go"). "I needn't have gone" (Modal + perfect base) has a special implication. This form is taught in the Upper Division (Pattern 123).

72.3 Teachers are advised to concentrate on "NEED" as a Modal rather than as a catenative Full Verb — e.g. "needn't" rather than "don't need to".

Pattern 73: Modal "Would"

This Modal, like all Modals, has a number of meanings — past tense of "WILL" in Reported Speech, contemporary unreal conditions, frequentative past, willingness in the past, polite requests. This last meaning (polite requests) is taught at this stage; later on in the course, the other meanings of WOULD are taught (Pattern 92, 109, 125).

Example: "Would you open the door please?"

This use of WOULD rather than WILL indicates a more polite style but is otherwise synonymous with WILL.

Pattern 74: Modals "May" and "Might"

74.1 "MIGHT" is the past tense of "MAY" in Reported Speech and possibly in unreal contemporary conditions (Patterns 92, 125). However, in the usual meaning of "possibility", MIGHT and MAY are synonymous in the usage of probably most speakers, although there are some who prefer to see MIGHT as more "tentative" than MAY (see Pattern 69). Teachers are recommended to regard both forms as in free variation (synonymous).

Example: "I may/might go there tomorrow", meaning "possibility". Like all the other Modals, it has a present and future reference. Note that MAY/MIGHT

meaning "possibility" has no interrogative form, since this is always interpreted as permission (see below).

74.2 "MAY" (rarely "MIGHT") also indicates permission and as such is synonymous with "CAN". Teachers are advised to teach "CAN" for permission and to regard "MAY" as a passive recognition item, representing a more formal style, e.g. "You may go now."

"May I go now?"

"You may not go now" — perhaps a more tentative prohibition than "you must not go now" but in practice a synonym.

74.3 The past time analogue of this Modal ("You may/might have done" meaning "it is possible that you did") is not taught till the Upper Division of the school. (Patterns 123, 125).

74.4 Hebrew speakers whose English is affected by mother-tongue interference will tend to say * "maybe that he knows me"; this mistake should be drilled out and replaced by "he may/might know me".

Pattern 75: Modal "Shall"

75.1 As stated in the Syllabus for Grades 5/6, the Modal "WILL" in its future time reference should be used for all persons, in the positive, negative and interrogative.

75.2 For active use "SHALL" is taught as a first person suggestion or polite offer, e.g. "Shall I open the windows?"

75.3 In Grades 8 and 9, pupils should become acquainted with "SHALL" in its other meanings as part of their passive language knowledge — for recognition rather than for active use.

Thus, pupils will meet SHALL in its first person future reference and even perhaps (but not if it may cause confusion) the so-called "Coloured Future" of promise or command ("You shall do it"), but are not obliged to use it.

Pattern 76: Modal "Should"

The meanings of SHOULD to be taught for active use are:

1) Advisability or "moral" obligation but not compulsion (i.e. a synonym of OUGHT TO, which is taught at a later stage — Pattern 96).
   e.g. "You should brush your teeth every day".
2) Tentative assumption (less positive than MUST) —
   e.g. "He left home last night; he should be there by now".

Pattern 77: Catenative (Semi-Modal) "Used to"

77.1 Like HAVE TO and GOING TO, USED TO is a catenative verb followed by the base form of the verb; and because it is similar semantically to one of the meanings of the Modal "WOULD" it can be classified as a "Semi-Modal".

79.2 USED TO means a *past habitual* or repeated practice, no longer followed, e.g. "I used to live there" (but now I don't).
"I used to smoke 20 cigarettes a day".

This verb has a past reference only, and the "suffix" is an integral and inseparable part of the verb: Hebrew-speakers often delete the "d" and give the resulting non-form ("I use to smoke 20 cigarettes a day now") the meaning which the Present Simple most frequently has ("I smoke 20 cigarettes a day now"). This mistake probably results from a confusion with the catenative BE + USED TO + NP ("I am used to cigarettes"; "I am used to smoking"). This pattern is taught at a later stage in the Intermediate Division (Pattern 101).

77.3 The negative form of USED TO is irregular. Most American and most British speakers say /ai didnt ju:s tə gou/ which may be expressed graphically as:

"I didn't use to go" (although the form "use to" without "did/didn't" never occurs).

The pedagogical course advised is to avoid the issue and insert the pre-verbal "never" for the negative — "I never used to go". However, pupils should also learn to recognize the other forms (see below, 77.6).

77.4 The *interrogative* likewise uses "did", with the same problem of the "suffix"; here no evasion is possible and teachers are advised to teach "did" + "use to" —

"Did you use to know him?"

77.5 The recommended construction for the "tag-question" (Pattern 79) is "You used to know him, didn't you?"

77.6 The alternative forms of USED TO in the negative and interrogative are:

"I used not to go" (usedn't)
"Used you to go?"

But these forms are British formal usage and very rare; if met in a text they should be regarded as passive recognition items only.

Pattern 78: Catenative (Semi-Modal): Be Able To + Base Verb

78.1 "BE ABLE TO" is often a synonym for "CAN", with the advantage of having an infinitive form so that a combination with an adjective, a catenative or a modal can occur.

e.g. "I am too busy to be able to help you."
"I am going to be able to help you."
"I may be able to help you".

"BE ABLE TO" is inflected for past and future meanings, although it is important to remember that CAN may be used for future reference.

78.2 "BE ABLE TO" differs in meaning from "CAN" insofar as it may also signify a single achievement resulting from effort or capacity.

e.g. "I was able to pass the examination last year."
"I ran hard and so was able to catch the bus."
In these sentences "COULD" is inappropriate.

78.3 Because of the semantic similarity, teachers are recommended to teach "KNOW + HOW TO + BASE" together with "BE ABLE TO". Hebrew speakers tend not to use HOW TO in this context (see Pattern 41).

Pattern 79: Tag Questions

Special attention should be given to Tags, because of their complexity.

79.1 A "tag question" is added to a statement and seeks confirmation of that statement. It is an interrogative sentence with a considerable part then deleted.

e.g. "He's your friend, isn't he?"
"He isn't your friend, is he?"

Note: "I am your friend, aren't I?"

73.2 The learning points involved in the Pattern are as follows:

a) where the statement is positive, the tag is negative and vice versa;
b) the tag question is composed of the auxiliary, modal or copula BE used in the statement + the Subject. Where the main verb was in the Simple Aspect positive (i.e. no auxiliary or modal), the carrier DO is used.
e.g. "He went, didn't he?"
c) Normally, the Subject of the statement is transformed into a personal pronoun.
d) these tag questions have a rising intonation (i.e. expressing a measure of doubt). Falling intonation (sure of confirmation) should not be taught.

79.3 This is the commonest structure and the one to be taught. These is also a pattern with a positive statement and a positive tag, with a deprecatory sarcastic meaning: "You're his friend, are you?" (unfortunately for you). "You're coming with, are you?" (not if I can help it). This pattern should not be taught (Note: falling intonation).

Most languages have such "tag questions" or attached forms ("echo questions"), which are usually one form only (but in Hebrew — נכון, לא נכון, לא, כן) whereas the English tag question may consist of the copula BE in present and past tenses, the auxiliaries DO/BE or HAVE (in the Perfect Aspect; see Pattern 91), or any Modal. The "Semi-Modals" HAVE TO and USED TO are catenatives and normally use DO/DID or DID respectively — "He has to go, doesn't he?"

Teaching this pattern provides a useful opportunity for reviewing all verb forms taught so far.

Pattern 80: Positive and Negative Agreement

a) SO + Modal/Auxiliary/Copula BE + NP
e.g. "So do I".
b) NP + Modal/Auxiliary/Copula BE + NOT (N'T) + EITHER
e.g. "I don't either".
c) NEITHER/NOR + Modal/Auxiliary/Copula BE + NP
e.g. "Neither do I".

This pattern agrees with a previous statement. It is the second occasion when inverted word order is taught, the first being the interrogative.

In the Primary School, the form "NP + Modal etc. + TOO" (e.g. "I do too") was taught; this pattern is synonymous with pattern (a) above — "So do I". The negative agreement patterns (b) and (c) are synonymous.

Pattern 81: Passive Voice

i.e. NP ± Modal + BE + VERB past participle ± agent NP (by + NP)
NP + GET + VERB past participle ± agent NP

The Present and Past Simple and Future WILL are taught in the Passive Voice at this initial stage; the Progressive Passive (e.g. "The letter is being written") is taught later. The Passive Modals are also taught — "The letter must be written". The two possibilities of the Passive transformation for the Indirect Object construction are taught.. —

"I gave him a book."

1) He was given a book (by me).
2) A book was given him (by me).

Pupils will also learn the *GET + past participle* catenative pattern, with its passive meaning. GET shows activity, BE shows state — compare "The murderer was caught" with "The murderer got caught", "They were married", "They got married".

Two learning points should be considered here —

a) the agent NP is not always obligatory and is often deleted ;
b) pupils will learn the past participle form in this meaningful manner.

They should not be given the verb paradigm to learn by heart, but should learn the past tense form in Grade 6 and the past participle separately at this stage, while learning the passive.

Transitive verbs are passivizable, so pupils should learn the past participle forms of transitive verbs only — i.e. a word like "gone", "been" or "lain" should not be taught at this stage, but learnt later in connection with the Perfect Aspect.

Pattern 82 : Two-Word Verbs : a) Prepositional Verbs

e.g. wait for (me)
look after (him)

82.1 The preposition is normally inseparable from the verb and cannot be replaced (*commuted*) by another preposition without changing the meaning radically (eg. compare "wait for" and "wait on").

The whole phrase is one grammatical unit, followed by a Noun Phrase.

However, a manner adverb may be inserted between the verb and the preposition ("wait quietly for me").

Note : The N.P. Direct Object following the phrase ("he waited for her") may be seen as the Object of the whole unit or of the preposition only ; in either case, the sentence is passivizable ("she was waited for by him ; the problem was dealt with ; the child was looked after").

82.2 There is a distinction between
a) *Prepositional Verbs* as above, where the whole unit is an idiom (a semantic unity) and the preposition non-commutable, e.g. "look for".
b) *Verb + Preposition*, where the two units are separately identifiable (non-idioms) and the preposition commutable

e.g. come in/out/on/off etc.
run up/down etc.
get on/off/in/out etc.
laugh at

Pattern 83: Two-Word Verbs: b) Verb + Particle (Separable Verbs)

The "particle" is also called an "adverb" or "adverbial particle".

e.g.	put out	except for "away", particles also serve as prepositions
	call up	
	bring out (publish)	
	write down	
	throw away	
	switch on	

83.1 Verb + Particle combinations differ from the Prepositional Verb and the Verb + Preposition in the following ways:

a) Verb + Particle combinations are separable, i.e. the Direct Object NP of the verb may be interposed between the verb and the particle ("particle shift") —
"I put out the fire" and "I put the fire out" are both equally correct.
When the Direct Object is a pronoun, it must be interposed —
"I put it out" and *never* "I put out it".
In Pattern 82, the verb and preposition are inseparable
e.g. "wait for me" and never "wait me for".

b) The particle is always stressed, the preposition is not stressed in Prepositional Verbs but may be stressed in the Verb + Preposition combination for emphatic contrastive purposes.

e.g. Verb + particle: "Switch the light on!" and "He switched on the light".
Prepositional Verb: "He waited for me".
Verb + Preposition: "Get on the bus" or "Get on the bus".

83.2 Just as there is a distinction between a Prepositional Verb and a Verb + Preposition, there is likewise a distinction in "Separable Verbs" between

a) "Phrasal Verbs" (idioms, with non-commutable particles)
e.g. "run up a bill" (compare with "run up a hill", Verb + Preposition).
b) Verb + Adverb (non-idiomatic) e.g. "throw it away".

83.3 Special points of difficulty for Hebrew speakers are:

a) the non-correspondence of the parallel Hebrew forms — where Hebrew has a Verb + attached preposition, e.g. לעזור ל־, English has a one-word verb, ("help") and vice versa, e.g. "look for" contrasted with לחפש.

b) Some Verb + attached preposition structures in Hebrew are passivizable לעזור ל־ others are not לחכות ל־. In both these cases, the equivalent English construction is passivizable.

83.4 Examples of Patterns 82 and 83 will have occurred as individual items in earlier classes; in the Intermediate Division these two-word verbs should be classified according to their Patterns and the Particle Shift in Pattern 83 should be adequately drilled.

83.5 Teachers are advised not to introduce three-word combinations into the vocabulary at this stage, i.e. Verb + Particle + Preposition ("they won't put up with it"), because of the probable confusion entailed.

Pattern 84: Verb Complementation: Verb + Base -ing (see also Pattern 117)

84.1 Examples of the -ING form ("GERUND" or "VERBAL NOUN" in traditional grammar) are:

He stopped talking.
He enjoyed talking.
He began talking.

It is called a "Verbal Noun" because it behaves like a noun syntactically (serving as the subject or object of a verb, and capable of being modified by an adjective or possessive, e.g. "his talking") and like a verb (taking an object — "talking nonsense" or being modified by an adverb —"talking well" etc.).

Where verbs followed by -ING occur in the vocabulary of the class, as they are sure to do, teachers will drill the complete pattern. A full list of such verbs is to be found in any reputable grammar book, including the distinction between

"He stops talking" (silence) and
"He stops to talk" (noise), which is not of course an example of Verb Complementation but is a clause of purpose equivalent to "he stops in order to talk" (Pattern 88).

Some verbs may be followed by "TO + BASE" form or the -ING form, *synonymously.*

e.g. He began to eat.
He began eating.

84.2 The Pattern PREPOSITION + BASE-ING is also taught.

Examples are:

"He stops me *from going.*"
"He went without saying good-bye".

Pattern 85: Verb Complementation: Verb + NP + Base

e.g. "He makes him go."
"He helped him rise."

This pattern should be contrasted with the VERB + NP + INFINITIVE (TO + BASE) taught in Grade 7.

Hebrew-speakers will tend to insert "to" before the base, but they should be used to the base form occurring alone from their work with Modals.

See also Pattern 127: "I saw him come/coming" — which might also be taught to an advanced class in Grade 9.

Pattern 86: Verb Complementation: Verb + NP + NP

or Verb + Direct Object + Object Complement (noun or adjective)

e.g. "They made him happy/king/tired/a member."
"We painted the house green."
"I called him a fool."

This form is the last basic sentence pattern in English, the others (already met) being:

1) Subject + Intransitive Verb
2) Subject + Linking Verb + Subject Complement
3) Subject + Transitive Verb + Direct Object
4) Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object (e.g. "I wrote him a letter." "I called him a taxi.").

This "Object-Complement" construction is viewed by some modern grammarians as an underlying sentence (as in Patterns 84 and 85).

Pattern 87: Complex Sentences of Cause and Concession

Cause: "I did it *because* I had to."
Concession: I did it *although* I didn't have to".

This pattern should provide no difficulty for the Hebrew speaker.

Pattern 88: Complex Sentences of Purpose and Result

Purpose — "I did it (in order) to show you."
The to-infinitive is the most common way of expressing purpose; sometimes a finite clause is used —
"I did it *in order that* (*so that*) I could show you."

Result — "I was *so* quick *that* he didn't see me."
"I was quick, *so* he didn't see me."

As these structures parallel the Hebrew equivalent fairly closely, no special difficulties are expected.

Pattern 89: Passive Voice, Progressive Aspect

NP + AUX "BE" + BE-ING + VERB-PAST PARTICIPLE (± NP-AGENT)
Example: "The letter is being written by the secretary."

The Passive Voice, Simple Aspect, was studied earlier in the Intermediate Division (Pattern 81); the Progressive Aspect is now studied also:

— Past Tense "was/were being written"
— Present Tense "is/are being written"

The interrogative and negative forms are taught at the same time, but teachers are advised not to teach the passive progressive modals ("the letter must be being written"), so as not to overburden the pupil with rare structures. The future WILL + progressive passive is also rare ("The letter will be being written.") but might be met in a text.

Pattern 90: Present Progressive with Future Reference

e.g. "I am travelling to Tel Aviv tomorrow."

This rather minor pattern extends the familiar pattern of the Present Progressive to a new application; since the Present Tense in Hebrew serves a similar function of indicating the near future, pupils are not expected to have much difficulty here. The use of the Present Simple to indicate a planned determined near future ("The ship sails at noon tomorrow.") is not recommended as a learning pattern for the Intermediate Division but should be taught in the Upper Division (Pattern 111). Note that "I am going to Tel Aviv tomorrow" is an example of this Pattern; it is *not* the GOING TO future, which is followed by the base "I am going to travel to Tel Aviv tomorrow.").

Pattern 91: Perfect Aspect, Present and Past

NP + AUX "HAVE + VERB-PAST PARTICIPLE (± NP)

Example: "I have written the letter."

91.1 The Present Perfect Simple and Progressive and the Past Perfect Simple are introduced in the Intermediate Division, but more detailed study of these structures is left to Grade 10. Teachers are reminded that the Present Perfect is more commonly found in British than in American English, and sentences like "He already did it" or "He just went" are accepted informal usage with many American native speakers. Native teachers in whose idiolect the Present Perfect is less frequent than in, for example, British English should nevertheless adapt themselves to the general use of the Present Perfect Simple, but at this stage this form should be used more for passive recognition than for active mastery. The use of the Past Simple tense (where the Perfect is used in the preferred dialect) by pupils in Grades 8-9 should not be treated as a serious error. More detailed study of the Perfect should be left to the Upper Division.

91.2 The central meaning of the Present Perfect as taught in Grade 9 is the CURRENT RELEVANCE of a past event. If a point of definite past time is stated or implied (e.g. "yesterday"), the Past Simple tense must be used.

Thus, 1) "He has lived in England" (and so can inform us of the situation)
but 2) "He lived in England last year."
or 3) "He has gone to America" (and is still there)
but 4) "He went there yesterday."

91.3 Teachers should also drill the use of the prepositions FOR and SINCE with the Present Perfect:

FOR indicates a period, SINCE mentions the point of time at which an on-going activity began (and so will often be used with the Progressive — 91.5).

Examples: 5) "I have lived here for many years" (and am still here)
6) "I have lived here since 1965" (and am still here)
N.B. "I lived here for many years" (but now I live elsewhere).

91.4 Thus the "Current Relevance" may indicate that the activity or state is still going on at the moment (examples 5, 6) or merely be relevant to the present (example 1). Sentences 5 and 6 may also occur in the Progressive (Pattern 91.5).

91.5 *Present Perfect Progressive (Continuous)*

It is not strictly true, as many grammarians claim, that the Present Perfect means an activity beginning in the past and continuing into the present. STATIVE Verbs are used in this way (see Pattern 29) but in general the PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE is used for this meaning —

e.g. 7) "I have been reading since 5 o'clock."

With some verbs the Present Perfect and the Present Perfect Progressive are synonymous (in free variation), e.g. "have lived / have been living," "have worked / have been working." See good grammar books for a list of these verbs.

Hebrew speakers will tend to use the Present Progressive instead of the Present Perfect Progressive. This is a very important structure in English and should be thoroughly drilled and contrasted with the Present Perfect Simple.

Note: "Who's been drinking my coffee?" (some is left)
"Who's drunk my coffee?" (all gone)

8) Note also another meaning of this form — "She's been swimming" indicating a very recent activity (she is still wet).

91.6 *Past Perfect Simple*

This pattern is used to indicate the relevance at some point of past time of a previously occurring event (past of past).

e.g. "In 1969 he had been married for 10 years."
"I hadn't yet left when he arrived."

In complex sentences, with subordinate temporal clauses, it is just as correct to use the Past Simple in cases where the Past Perfect might have been called for. A conjunction of time ("before, after") is a sufficient indication of the order of events, as is any temporal reference; in other words, any structure which is contextually clear and unambiguous.

e.g. "He came before I did" (instead of "had come")
"He left after I did" (instead of "had")
"I lost the pen which my wife gave me 5 years earlier" (instead of "had given")

The Past Perfect Simple is also used in the Sequence of Tenses sometimes required by Reported Speech (see Pattern 92).

91.7 The interrogative and negative forms as well as the contracted forms ("I've gone", "I'd gone", "I've been going") are also taught. The passive of the Present Perfect Simple and the Past Perfect Simple are also taught, but not the passive of the Present Perfect Progressive ("He has been being taught"), which is clearly extremely rare as well as being structurally very complicated. The Past Perfect Progressive ("He had been teaching") will likewise not be taught at this stage, although it might be presented incidentally in connection with Reported Speech (Pattern 122).

Pattern 92: Complex Sentences, with Noun-Object Clauses

NP + VERB + NOUN CLAUSE

Examples: 1) I know that he is here. (TH-clause)
2) I said that he is here. (TH-clause)
3) I asked if/whether he is here (WH-clause derived from a "YES-NO" interrogative)

4) I know who is here.	WH — clauses derived from "information-questions" WH — interrogatives
5) I know what is here.	
6) I know what he did.	

92.1 Note that in examples 4 and 5 the clauses are linked by a pronoun which is itself the subject of the noun-object clause; example 6 links the clauses by a pronoun which is the object of the following clause, while examples 1-3 are linked by conjunctions.

92.2 *REPORTED SPEECH* patterns are subsumed within this overall pattern. Teachers are advised that SEQUENCE OF TENSES in Reported Speech STATEMENTS (i.e. if the verb of report is in the past, the reported clause is transformed to the past-present to past (called "backshift"), past or present perfect to past perfect) is not obligatory in informal usage (particularly in speech), if the reported clause is still valid at the moment of report.

Examples: 1) He said that he is my friend — informal speech usage, transforming the Direct Speech "I am your friend".

2) He said that he was my friend — formal usage, transforming the Direct Speech "I am your friend" or informal usage, transforming the Direct Speech "I was your friend".

When there is a string of past tense direct speech sentences to be transformed, even formal usage tends to transform the first reported clause into the past perfect but to leave the following verbs in the past simple:
e.g.. "He said that he had done it before I came."

Teachers of a foreign language should not be over-permissive in usage, and the borderline between informal usage and substandard forms is not always clear; hence, teachers are advised to be conservative-descriptive and not over-permissive on the one hand or prescriptive on the other. With regard to the past tense transformation of Reported Speech, the recommended pedagogical procedure is to regard the transformation as optional for informal speech but obligatory for writing and for formal speech. Reported Speech statements ("He said that he had done it"), orders ("He told me to do it"), requests ("He asked me to do it"), and questions ("He asked me how he could do it") are all taught. *Reported Speech orders, questions and requests should be intensively drilled.* Reported Speech orders and requests were originally met in Grade 7 (Pattern 66) as part of a "Verb + NP + Infinitive" pattern. Statements are transformed into TH-clauses, questions into WH-clauses — why, when, where, what, who (m), how, whether (alternatively, "if"). Reported speech questions re-transform the word order into the regular pattern:

He asked "Why will you do that?"
He asked why I would do that.

Note: the carrier DO is not used in Reported Questions — He asked "why do you speak like that?" → He asked why I spoke like that. Misusing DO here is a common error.

N.B. "THAT" is not obligatory — "He said (that) he's my friend."

Pattern 93: Defining Relative Clauses

93.1 Only "defining" ("restrictive") clauses are taught at this stage — clauses that are a semantically-inseparable part of the sentence and modify the preceding noun rather than the sentence as a whole.

Examples: 1) The man who/that came in is my brother
2) The man (who/whom/that) you saw is my brother.
3) The house (which/that) you saw belongs to her.

93.2 For pedagogical reasons (especially from the point of view of Hebrew mother-tongue influence) as well as for considerations of frequency, the relative pronoun THAT should be used for human, other animate and non-animate referents. WHO and WHICH are also permissible of course, in their distinctive environments and should also be taught; however THAT is as common as WHICH and slightly less common than WHO, but has the advantage of having the same distribution as the other two together. THAT may not be used if the preposition precedes the relative, e.g. "The man that I was going to" or "The man who (whom) I was going to" but "The man to whom I was going" (see Pattern 104 for WHOM). In general, end-prepositions are to be preferred, at least in speech.

93.3 Both Subject (example 1) and Object (examples 2 and 3) are taught; for Object clauses, the ZERO relative ("contact clause") is also to be taught — "the man you saw is my brother". Zero is also used with the end-preposition — "the man I was going to...".

93.4 The possessive relative WHOSE is taught for animates and non-animates alike — "The books whose covers are torn will be replaced." The relative adverbs WHERE, WHEN, WHY are also taught.

93.5 Note that the defining clause is not separated from the rest of the sentence by commas and there is no pause in speech. An example of a *non-defining* clause (Pattern 126) is "my uncle, who lives in Canada, is coming tomorrow" — meaning normally that I have one uncle only. Such a sentence is paraphrasable as "My uncle lives in Canada and is coming tomorrow". The corresponding defining relative clause, "My uncle who lives in Canada is coming tomorrow" indicates which of my many uncles is coming.

Pattern 94: Conditional Clauses

94.1 The complex of conditional clauses should be spread over a number of years of study; at this stage only the "Open" and the "Unreal Contemporary" (Hypothetical) conditions in regular word order are taught.

i.e. 1) If he learns, he will know.
2) If he learnt, he would know.
The conditional clause may precede or follow the main clause.

Other tense combinations of the "Open" conditions may also be taught, e.g. "If he went to the football match, then he saw the new player." These do not present any learning problem.

Example 1 does present a learning problem since the conjunction IF is followed by the present tense even though it has a future reference. Here again, careful grading and selection are necessary, because WILL may follow IF, with the meaning of "volition-request" ("If you will do this, I will do that") or insistence (with emphatic stress on the first Modal), but should not be taught for active use.

94.2 IF in "open condition" is translated by [im] in Hebrew; IF in "unreal (hypothetical) contemporary" conditions (unfulfilled and not likely to be fulfilled — improbable) is often translated by [lu] in Hebrew.

94.3 The rule for Example 2 — "unreal contemporary" (hypothetical) conditions is:

a) past tense in the conditional clause
b) past modal in the main clause (WOULD, COULD, MIGHT).

94.4 The "unreal past" condition, with the past perfect in the conditional clause and the past modal WOULD etc. + perfect base in the main clause, is taught in the Upper Division (Pattern 125). Deletion of the conjunction and inverted word order — "Were he here, we would do that." — are not taught (Pattern 137).

94.5 The use of WERE rather than WAS in the "unreal contemporary (hypothetical) condition" is optional in speech and in informal writing; it is just as correct to say "If I was in his place..." as "If I were...". The WERE form (subjunctive) is the more formal and to be preferred in written work. Note that the phrase "if I were you" is a fixed collocation in informal usage also; this is the only permissible form.

94.6 "UNLESS" can be taught as an optional alternative to "IF.... NOT" in those cases where the two forms are synonymous.

94.7 WISH. The optative WISH is taught together with the Unreal Contemporary (hypothetical) condition. The WISH + THAT clause meaning an unfulfilled hope takes the past tense in the THAT clause.

e.g. I wish he was/were here now.
I wish he would come now/soon.

This same structure is also used with:

It's time
suppose/imagine
I'd rather
if only
} that

Pattern 95: Time Clauses with Future Reference

Time clauses with present and past reference have already been taught (Pattern 68); future reference clauses are now taught also. As with the conditional conjunction IF (as used in "Open" conditions), the present tense is used after temporal conjunctions to indicate future time.

e.g. "When
Before
After
} you see him tomorrow, you will be surprised."

Since the open-condition IF fits this Pattern, teachers might consider teaching "IF" + present tense as part of this Pattern, and regard the Unreal Contemporary condition as a Pattern entirely separate.

Pattern 96: Modal "Ought (To)"

This Modal means the same as SHOULD in its "moral" obligation, "advisability" and "tentative deduction" references.

This Modal is structurally peculiar in being followed by the Function-Word "to"

— "I ought to go"
"I ought not to go"
"Ought I to go?"

Some grammars regard OUGHT as the Modal to be followed by the to-infinitive; others see "OUGHT TO" as the unit, followed by the Base. Note the optional deletion of "TO" in the tag question and short answer "... oughtn't I (to)? Yes, you ought (to)."

The past time analogues of OUGHT TO and other modal verbs (Modal + perfect base) are not taught in the Intermediate Division (Pattern 125).

Pattern 97: Modal Phrase "Would Rather"

Some argument obtains whether the phrase is WOULD RATHER or HAD RATHER: the general tendency is to regard it as formulated above. In speech, the contracted form is used — I'd rather go; in tag-questions (Pattern 79) WOULD alone is found — "*You'd rather* do that, *wouldn't you*?"

Note that the negator follows the adverb "I'd rather *not*."

WOULD RATHER means "prefer"; if a conjunction or preposition is required THAN is used — "I'd rather walk than ride"; "I'd rather see him than her."

Pattern 98: Modal Phrase "Had Better"

As in Pattern 97, the contracted form is most commonly used — "You'd better go." The meaning of the phrase is "advice", including warning.

The tag-question form is as follows — "You'd better go, hadn't you?"

Pattern 99: "Semi-Modal" Phrase "Be About (To)"

BE ABOUT (TO) is a catenative verb (called a SEMI-MODAL because of its semantic similarity to the modal WILL), meaning "very near future". It is followed by the infinitive.

e.g. "The driver is about to enter his car."

The phrase may be analyzed as "BE ABOUT TO" followed by the base form or "BE ABOUT" followed by the to-infinitive (see Pattern 96 — OUGHT TO).

Pattern 100: NP + "Have" (or "Get") + NP + Verb-Past Participle

Examples: He has/gets his hair cut.
He had/got his car mended.

"HAVE" is a catenative verb in this meaning, forming its negative and interrogative with DO

e.g. "Does he have his house painted?"

In this construction, the NP subject does not undertake the activity himself but "activates" someone else (stated or implied) to do it.

Pattern 101: "Be Used To" + Gerund, NP

Examples: I am used to cigarettes.
I am used to smoking.

This "verb of habituation" is frequently confused with USED TO + BASE meaning "frequent past" ("I used to smoke") taught earlier (Pattern 77). BE USED TO occurs in present and past and co-occurs with Modals.

If teachers wish, they may also teach the "GET USED TO" pattern, which differs from BE USED TO as "activity" versus "state".

e.g. I got used to him in the end. I am getting used to him gradually.
I am used to him now.

Pattern 102: "Have Got"; "Have Got To"

"I'VE GOT", "YOU'VE GOT" etc. mean "have" in its possessive meaning. They are present in meaning, perfect in structure, and are almost always found in the contracted form "I've got" and very rarely in the full form ("I have got a book") unless used in emphatic affirmation. The negative and interrogative do use the uncontracted form, as does the tag-question.

e.g. "Have you got a book?"
"I haven't got a book."
"You haven't got a book, have you?"

Both American and British English use this very common form, especially favoured in informal speech.

Note that GOT is the past participle in British English for all meanings of GET, but American English distinguishes between the one-time occurrence of participle GOT in this construction only (I'VE GOT) and the use of "GOTTEN" meaning "acquired".

Similarly, HAVE GOT TO (pronounced /hæv/) is an alternative to HAVE TO (pronounced /hæf/), e.g. "I've got to go now"; once again, the reference is to the present.

Pupils should be encouraged to use HAVE GOT and HAVE GOT TO in conversational English.

Pattern 103: "Have" as an Anomalous Finite

i.e. I have not any books. Have you any books?

The formal British usage of HAVE as an anomalous finite (i.e. irregular structure for a full verb) has been delayed till late in the Intermediate Division; hitherto pupils have used the far more common DO + HAVE for interrogative and negative, as well as the HAVE GOT form. Speakers of American English never use the anomalous form; all English speakers use the DO + HAVE form for the non-possessive meanings of the verb (e.g. "Did you have breakfast early today?" and never *had you breakfast); and even in the possessive meaning most British users tend to distinguish between the anomalous form for permanent or habitual non-possession and the DO form for temporary lack of possession, e.g. "I don't have any money." (=I've not brought any with me) v. "I haven't any money" (= I'm bankrupt). However, individual usage varies gently; some speakers adopt the opposite practice to that indicated above, while others use both forms synonymously.

A common mistake with foreign learners of English is to over-generalize the anomalous finite use of HAVE (i.e. viewing it as similar to the BE pattern); since the DO form is correct in every case, teachers are advised to see the Anomalous Finite form as an item mainly for passive recognition.

Pattern 104 : Whom

Hitherto, WHO has been taught as the accepted form for both subject and object interrogative and relative pronouns, e.g.

1. Who saw me?
2. Who did you see?
3. Who are you waiting for?
4. I know who you are looking for.
5. This is the man who saw me.
6. This is the man who I saw.
7. This is the man who I'm waiting for.

In a more formal style, WHOM is the object pronoun parallel to WHO. Thus sentences 2 and 6 may be changed to "WHOM did you see?" and "This is the man WHOM I saw," and sentences 3, 4 and 7 may be changed to:

3. For whom are you waiting? or Whom are you waiting for?
4. I know for whom you are waiting, or I know whom you are waiting for.
7. This is the man for whom I am waiting, or This is the man whom I am waiting for.

It must be emphasised again that WHOM is restricted to a formal style and therefore would more usually *not* be found with an end-preposition. WHO (and the end-preposition where applicable) are the recommended forms to be used in everyday speech and writing.

Many speakers seem to prefer THAT or ZERO relative pronoun (where appropriate) in order to avoid the choice between WHO and WHOM.

Pattern 105 : NP + Verb + So / Not

Examples: I hope so.
I hope not.

SO/NOT are sentence (or clause) substitutes, representing underlying sentences. Some other verbs taking SO/NOT are "believe, think, suppose, be afraid." Notice the difference in meaning between "I don't think" and "I think not". "I don't think so" is synonymous with "I think not" and may be used interchangeably. Likewise, note the idiomatic meaning of "I'm afraid so" as "I'm sorry".

Pattern 106 : Some Derivational Affixation Patterns

All major inflectional patterns have already been taught. The most important derivational productive affixes (syntactic and lexical) are now taught inductively, via other patterns. Uncontextualized "word-family" exercises are *not* advised and special attention should be paid to affixes which do not merely change the word-class but also change the meaning of the base somewhat. Grades 8-9 are introduced to these patterns ; Grade 10 does them in more detail.

Affixes are bound morphemes: inflectional affixes (e.g. noun plurals and genitive) give a further grammatical specification to the Base but do not change the word-class; derivational affixes (e.g. happy → happ*ily*) change the word-class (in this example, adjective to adverb) or introduce semantic differentiation within the same word-class (e.g. true → *un*true). Most derivational suffixes are syntactic (change the word-class) and most prefixes are semantic (e.g. *ex*-king). Following are some common affixes which should be taught *inductively*. In many cases the base morpheme undergoes allomorphic variation when the suffix is attached, e.g. base "nation" (vowel /ei/), base + affix "national" (vowel /æ/).

1) Noun-forming suffixes:

From the Verb —	...ance	e.g. appearance
	...ment	e.g. government
	...er	e.g. worker
	...tion	e.g. complication
From the Adjective —	...ity	e.g. nationality
	...ness	e.g. happiness
From other Nouns —	...ship	e.g. friendship

2) Verb-forming suffixes:

From the Noun —	...ize	e.g. organize
	...ify	e.g. beautify
	...en	e.g. heighten
From the Adjective	...ize	e.g. modernize
	...ify	e.g. simplify
	...en	e.g. shorten

From the Bound Base (i.e. the base is not a free morpheme and so does not belong to a word-class)

	...ate	e.g. operate
	...ize	e.g. recognize

3) Adjective-forming suffixes:

From Nouns	—	...y	e.g. funny
		...al	e.g. natural
		...ful	e.g. careful
		...less	e.g. careless
		...en	e.g. wooden
From Verbs	—	...able	e.g. loveable
		...ive	e.g. active
From Bound-Stem	—	...y	e.g. holy
		...al	e.g. local
		...able	e.g. portable
		...ic	e.g. comic

Noun-modifiers ending with "-ed" are regarded by linguists variously as adjectives formed from verbs or as past participles modifying nouns.

4) Adverb-forming suffixes:

From adjectives	— ... ly	e.g. happily
From nouns	— ... wards	e.g. Northwards

5) Some lexical prefixes to be taught are:

anti-	(anti-war)	re-	(rewrite)
ex-	(ex-king)	sub	(subcommittee)
pre-	(pre-war)	non-, un-, im-, in-,	(negatives)
post-	(post-war)		

These are all productive prefixes added to free morphemes. Considerable controversy exists over their application to bound bases (e.g. pretend, reply), which are viewed by many modern linguists as one-morpheme units and not as complex words. Teachers are therefore advised to restrict themselves to productive morphemes of contemporary English and not to deal systematically with etymological investigations including etymological "word-families" where both supposed "prefix" and "base" are non-productive and whose common meaning is obscure, e.g. "insist, resist, consist, persist ..." The occasional diachronic explanation may however be illuminating, as long as the teacher and class are aware of the processes of Semantic Change applying.

Pattern 107: Summary of the Functional Parts of the Sentence and of NP Word Order

Teachers should revise the Sentence-Patterns taught so far and deal inductively with the functional parts of sentence — Subject, Verb (Predicator), Modifiers, Function Words, Direct Object, Indirect Object, Subject Complement, Object Complement. Likewise, sentence-patterns in substitution tables etc. should stress the word order in the sentence, especially the position of noun-modifiers.

Below is the generally agreed view as to the order of these modifiers but a speaker wishing to emphasize a given word may change its normal word order.

Pre-Determiner	Determiner, Noun-genitive, Possessive Article	Numerals, Quantifiers	Descriptive Adjectives	Dimension	Age
All	the (my)	old friend's	many two	nice	large	old

Colour	Nationality	Material	Noun-Adjuncts	Head-Noun
blue	English	wooden	garden	chairs

These notes are for the teacher's information only; functional parts of a sentence and the word order of the NP are taught inductively through the various sentence patterns.

Expansion of Previous Patterns

All patterns previously learnt will be reviewed and expanded.

GRAMMAR PATTERNS FOR THE UPPER DIVISION (GRADES 10-12)

The Grammar programme for the Upper Division is divided as follows:

a) review and consolidation of the structures taught in the Primary School and the Intermediate Division;
b) further applications of the structures previously studied;
c) new structures to be learnt as part of the Active (Productive) Grammatical Inventory;
d) other structures (examples are given below) which may form part of the Passive (Recognition) Grammar to be explained as met but not intensively drilled or tested.

FURTHER APPLICATIONS OF STRUCTURES PREVIOUSLY STUDIED

Pattern 108: Present Perfect (other uses of). Pupils are taught the Present Perfect (British usage).

a) *Just* perfect as a very recent activity (also with the Past Perfect)
b) *already, not yet,* frequency adverbs
c) to indicate action completed within a period of time which is specified and includes the moment of speaking, e.g. *today, this week, during the last 5 years.* Example: "I've seen him three times this week so far".
N.B. The perfect of "BE" + preposition "TO" is used to indicate a return journey ("I've been to London").

Pattern 109: Modals (other meanings)

109.1 WILL — characteristic ("Boys will be boys. He'll sit there for hours")
— volition, especially in the negative (e.g. "He won't come" — i.e. he refuses). See below "WOULD".

109.2 *WOULD* — past time characteristic ("When he was young, he would sit there for hours").

This form is partly synonymous with "USED TO" (as in the example), in the restricted context of activities that were habitual or recurrent in the past, but only when using non-stative verbs.

("Stative verbs" are also known as "Private Verbs" — see Primary School syllabus).

Compare: "I used to know him well".
*"I would know him well".
(Asterisked sentences indicate non-occurring forms.)

— volition in the past, especially in the negative (e.g. "He wouldn't do it" — i.e. he refused). See WILL above.

— tentative request ("Would you mind -ING...?", "Would you open the window please?")

109.3 *CAN* — Sensation ("I can see him now") N.B. British usage "I can't see him"; U.S. usage "I don't see him". Hebrew speakers will tend not to use the Modal here.

109.4 *SHOULD* — in the Object clause after verbs of suggestion (Traditional Grammar — "subjunctive equivalent") — "I suggest that he should do it", instead of "that he do it" or "that he does it". See Pattern 144 ("Recognition grammar"). Other verbs in this class are: demand, require, propose.

Pattern 110: Present Progressive + "Always" or "Forever"

Examples: "I'm always doing that", "He's forever reading".

This use of the Present Progressive is sometimes called "SPORADIC REPETITION". In effect it is the "habitual" use of the present progressive; the reference is usually pejorative. Note that the present progressive "habitual" always requires an adverb, whereas the present simple "habitual" does not. Contrast "I always tell my class that..." with "I'm always telling my class that..." (i.e. usually meaning that I am rebuking them).

Pattern 111: Present Simple (other meanings)

a. "Planned future" — "They go on their trip tomorrow".
b. "Demonstrative" — reporting an activity in certain definable contexts (sports, demonstrations), not indicating duration and so not requiring the Progressive form: "The team comes on the field now". "So-and-so kicks the ball". "Now I wipe the black-board".
c. "Narrative" ("historical present") a vivid reportage of a past event. "Napoleon orders his army to attack." "Shakespeare describes the scene beautifully."
d. "Performative" — the words are part of the activity; the verb is used with the first person pronoun: "I say you're wrong", "I promise I'll

come", "I hereby name this ship the X", "I beg your pardon", "I deny the charge". These are formal acts of declaration (especially in ceremonial contexts) wherein the event and the act of speech are simultaneous.

Pattern 112: Adjunct Nouns (Nouns as Modifiers of Nouns)

Adjunct nouns were introduced in Grades 5-6 as nouns modifying other nouns within a Noun Phrase. Some traditional grammarians regard the Adjunct Noun as an Adjective or as a "Noun functioning as an Adjective", but structurally this definition is untenable (e.g. an adjective may be preceded by a word like "very" ("Pre-Adjective" or "Intensifier") — "a very stony hill" — whereas an Adjunct Noun may not — * "a very stone house".

Hebrew will tend to use the genitive phrase (סמיכות), a prepositional phrase or an Adjective + Noun combination where English would use the Adjunct Noun + Head Noun.

Examples: "a gold watch" (Hebrew: prepositional phrase — שעון מזהב)

"city hall" (Hebrew: genitive phrase — בית העיריה)

"head gardener" (Hebrew: adjective + noun — גנן ראשי)

Primary stress is on the Head element as in the examples above (as distinct from Compound Nouns, Pattern 113).

The Adjective + Noun pattern has a similar stress distribution.

Pattern 113: Compound Nouns

Pupils will have met very many compound nouns in the course of their English studies. Here again, Hebrew often uses a genitive phrase or a prepositional phrase. Where a genitive phrase is used, the word order will be the reverse of the English pattern, e.g. "nightclub", (מועדון לילה), "headache" (כאב ראש), dining room, housewife. Reversing the correct order of the English pattern to accord with Hebrew usage is a very common error. Compare: "bús station" (Modifier + Head): תחנת אוטובוסים (Head + Modifier).

Another common error of Hebrew speakers using the Noun + Noun pattern (both Compound and Adjunct) is to pluralize the Modifier (e.g. * "oranges peels" — following Hebrew— קליפות תפוזים). Whereas in beginning classes the parallel tendency to pluralize the adjective (* bigs boys) is soon eradicated because of the non-occurrence of pluralized adjectives in English, the pluralized noun as an adjunct or an element in a compound is much harder to eradicate since every learner comes across this pluralization (or alternatively and even more confusingly the genitive as a Noun-Head Modifier) in other contexts all the time, e.g. "a boys' school".

Some Characteristics of Compound Nouns in English

I) Compound Nouns (and Adjunct Nouns) are usually analyzable as transformations of underlying sentences, e.g. "(I have a) headache" as "(my) head aches";

II) the first element carries primary stress (/), as distinct from the Adjunct Noun pattern (see above);

III) the two elements are Modifier + Head. The Modifier may be a noun (e.g. góldsmith), an adjective (e.g. bláckboard), a pronoun (e.g. hé-goat), a verb (e.g. pláyground; for -ING modifier, see Pattern 115), or particle (e.g. oút-break — compare with the corresponding two-word verb "break out"). Compare: "a bus station" (a certain kind of station),
"a station bus" (a certain kind of bus).

IV) Compound Phrases in English are also common. Examples are:
(i) Noun + prepositional phrase, with the Noun as the inflected element (e.g. sóns-in-law, párts of speech).
(ii) Noun + particle (e.g. pássers-by, góings-on)
(iii) Noun + Noun (e.g. mén-servants, wómenfolk)

Notes: (I) Compound nouns are manifested phonologically (stress assignment) not typographically. The orthographic conventions are usually quite arbitrary: one word (bláckboard"), two ("beáuty parlour") or hyphenated ("díning-room"), with frequent overlapping. There are no fixed rules for hyphenation in English.

(II) Any word may carry primary stress, if the intention is to emphasize that word contrastively.

(III) Ambiguities occur in the NP pattern in written English (where stress is not indicated) because of word order and the paucity of inflectional and derivational suffixes in the language; thus "the English teacher" may be Noun + Noun (המורה לאנגלית), 'the English teacher" or Adjective + Noun (המורה האנגלי) "the English téacher".

Pattern 114: Compound Adjectives

Nouns are not the only compound words in English; there are also compound adjectives ("seasick") and compound verbs ("outdo"). The following types of compound adjectives occur in English.

a) a red-haired boy (= a boy who has/with red hair), a three-legged table, a cross-eyed look, broken-hearted,

b) a fun-loving fellow (= a fellow who loves fun), a beer-drinking type, a nice-looking girl,

c) sunburnt, brickbuilt,

d) well-known, well-dressed,

e) quick-firing, high-flying, far-reaching,
f) incoming, outgoing, upstanding.
Note: The stress pattern in this Pattern is inconsistent.

Pattern 115: -Ing as a Noun-Modifier

Grammarians divide this structure into (I) *Gerund + Noun*, in which case it is a Noun modifying another Noun (Compound Noun stress pattern), and (II) *Present-Participle + Noun*, in which case it is a Verb modifying a Noun (Adjunct + Noun stress pattern).

Example: *"Running wáter"*, which may be described as a transformation of "water that is running" (i.e. present-participle).

Note that the second element is stressed.

On the other hand, *"Dáncing shoes"* is describable as a transformation of "shoes for dancing" (i.e. a gerund, which has the stress pattern of a Compound Noun). Gerunds as Verbal Nouns (Subject or Object of the Verb) were taught in Grades 8-9 (Pattern 84). See also Patterns 117, 141, 145.

This pattern cannot be analyzed as "Adjective + Noun", since the -ING cannot be compared ("more -, most -"), or be modified by an Intensifier ("very"). Some other -ING modifiers, however, are adjectives according to this classification — e.g. "This is a more / very interesting, pleasing, distressing book" (all drawn from a special set of stative animate-object verbs). Semantic restraints (selectional rules) operate here and each item must be learnt separately; thus, for example, this set of stative animate-object verbs (e.g. as above, also "excite, astonish, shock, satisfy") have the common property of arousing emotion of one kind or another. *"Dancing girls"* will be translated by different syntactic structures in Hebrew, (I) בנות רוקדות for the English participle construction (primary stress on "girls") and (II) רקדניות the gerund (primary stress on "dancing").

Pattern 116: "Pre-Adjectives" ("Intensifiers") Modifying Adjectives and Adverbs

This construction is an expansion of "VERY" + Adjective/Adverb, taught in Grades 5-6. Other examples of intensifiers are "somewhat, pretty, too, fairly, quite". Some of these intensifiers may also appear before the Comparative ("somewhat better"), others also function as Determiners ("*much* better" as Intensifier, "*much* money" as Determiner). Note the various meanings of "quite" — "quite right" (absolutely), "quite good" (rather), as well as being also an adverb — "I quite agree" (absolutely).

Traditional grammarians classify these words as "adverbs" but nothing is gained by combining into one word-class modifiers of verbs and modifiers of adjectives and adverbs, since they do not function alike.

Pattern 117: Sentence Complements in Various Functions

(a) There are three major ways of turning sentences into complements in English: with the infinitival *to*, with the Gerund *-ing* and with the subordinator *that*;

e.g. I want *to help you.* (Pattern 53)
I enjoy *helping you.* (Pattern 84)
I know *that I can help you.* (Pattern 92)
See also section (d) in this Pattern — NOMINALIZATION.

Notes: (I) Hebrew has only two equivalents for these three forms: the Infinitival אני רוצה לעזור...; a כי or ש־ clause: אני יודע שאני יכול.
(II) The choice of type of complement depends on the particular verb, and this is another source of potential interference.
Compare: I suggest that we go now: אני מציע שנלך עכשיו.
*I suggest to go now. אני מציע ללכת עכשיו.

(b) The -ING form is accompanied by the possessive form of the Subject of the complement (e.g. "Do you mind John's playing the piano?", "I resent his taking all the food"). However, in contemporary usage, both the possessive and the objective form of the underlying subject are acceptable in the following contexts:

e.g. I disapprove of *John's* driving.
I disapprove of *John* driving there on his own.
Do you mind *my* opening the window?
Do you mind *me* opening the window?
In such cases, the use of the possessive makes the expression more like an ordinary nominal (see (d) below), while the use of the objective case (for example, *him* instead of *his*) makes it keep more of its verbal flavour.

(c) See also Pattern 134 (Pro-Subject IT) for further examples of sentential complements.

(d) A fourth type of Complement structure — in addition to the three noted in 117(a) above — is provided by cases of *Nominalization*, i.e. the process whereby a verb is turned into an abstract noun, and the verb-phrase of which it was the Head is thereby transformed into a noun-phrase. Compare, for example:

VERBAL -ING form: "Absorbing immigrants is..."
ABSTRACT NOUN: "The absorption of immigrants is..."

(I) Note that the infinitival and gerund are like verb-phrases in that they may contain adverbial modifiers of the verb (e.g. "absorbing immigrants effectively") and, except when the subject is impersonal, may have perfect or

passive verb-phrases (e.g. "having absorbed . . .", "being absorbed"). But the abstract noun is like a noun-phrase in that it takes only adjectival modifiers (e.g. "the effective absorption"), does not have perfect or passive verb-phrases, requires the verbal object to be in a prepositional phrase (e.g. "the absorption of . . ."), and may contain the derived nominal form of the verb itself in *-tion, -ment, -al* etc.

(II) All verbs in English have an -ING form. Many have both the -ING form and the abstract-noun form, e.g. reacting — reaction, expecting — expectation, judging — judgment, developing — development, refusing — refusal, arriving — arrival.

However, many of the commonest verbs in the language have no special abstract-noun form, e.g. "come, go, write, read, cook, swim, drive, work". This is the source of many ambiguities; thus, "I disapprove of John's cooking" could mean "the fact that John cooks", "the way in which John cooks" or "the things that John cooks."

(III) Note that in the sentence "We found some writings for the collection", the -ING form is interpreted as a concrete noun.

In Hebrew, the form called "שם הפעולה" manifests very similar properties, e.g. הוכחה — "proof" or "proving", יישוב "settlement" or "settling", החלטה — — "decision" or "deciding".

(e) In addition to Nouns and Verbs being complemented by the same four basic types of structures (all of which are derivable from underlying sentences), ADJECTIVES may similarly be complemented:

e.g. He is AFRAID OF (his wife's) *taking* risks.

He is RESPONSIBLE FOR { the judge's *refusing* to hear the case. / the *collapse* of their business.

It is EASY (*for* you) to talk that way.

It is OBVIOUS *that* they will never get here on time.

See also Pattern 129 in this syllabus for the ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITION structure.

(f) The two non-finite constructions (the Infinitival and the Gerund) can also be derived from sentences in the past, in which case the Perfect form of these expressions is used, as follows: *to have* + Past Participle, *having* + Past Participle.

e.g. We were glad to have met them = We were glad that we had met them.
He regretted having told her = He regretted that he had told her.

However, teachers are advised to treat both the Perfect Infinitive and Perfect Gerund as parts of the "Recognition grammar" referred to in Pattern 14 of this Syllabus.

Pattern 118: Have + NP + Base

Example: I had him do it.

a) "HAVE" here means "to cause" and is partly synonymous with "MAKE", Pattern 85, Grades 8-9.

b) "MAKE" is ambiguous as between "compulsion" ("he made him apply for the job") and "cause" ("he made him dislike the game"). With adjective complements, only the latter interpretation is possible — "he made her happy/sad/tired".

c) "HAVE" generally refers to causing at one's own behest or volition — "We had our guests come early" or "She had her pupils hand in their essays every Sunday morning".

d) HAVE + NP + PAST PARTICIPLE ("I had my hair cut") is taught in the Intermediate Division, Pattern 99, Grades 8-9, but can now be reviewed as based on c) above. Thus, "They had their house painted" = "they had someone paint their house".

Pattern 119: Active Infinitive with Passive Meaning

Example: "He is to blame".

The parallel passive form is just as common — "there's no time to lose / be lost." However, the construction "he is to be blamed" may also mean that someone will blame him, whereas, "he is to blame" simply means "it is his fault".

Pattern 120: More Derivational Affixation Patterns

These patterns were introduced in the Intermediate Division (Pattern 106, Grades 8-9). Teachers are advised to pay special attention to prefix and suffix patterns in the Upper Division, on the general lines suggested in the Intermediate Division Syllabus. Care should be taken to prevent misunderstandings in the case of derivative forms which in Modern English are no longer semantically related, e.g. arbitrary — arbitrate, considerate — considerable. Similarly, teaching time need not be spent on pointing out the common origin of such prefixes to bound stems, as in "desist, defer, depress, detain", or in the bound stems themselves, as in "desist, insist, persist, consist", etc.

NEW STRUCTURES TO BE LEARNT AS PART OF THE ACTIVE GRAMMATICAL INVENTORY

COMPLEX VERB PATTERNS (Patterns 121-125)

Pattern 121 : Have (present or past) + Be-past participle + Verb — past participle

This construction is called the "PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE".

Example: "The letter has been written" (± by — agent).

N.B. The forms "has/had been being written" are so rare as to be virtually non-occurring.

Pattern 122 : Had + Be-past participle + Verb-ing

This construction is called the "PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE".

Example: "He said that he had been living there for ten years".

The Present Perfect Progressive was taught in Grade 9.

Pattern 123 : Present Modal + Have + Verb — Past participle

This construction consists of the Present Modal + Perfect Base.

Examples:

(I) "He will have gone by 8 p.m." (the "FUTURE PERFECT"). Note the use of "by" in this connection, where Hebrew speakers will tend to use "until" (similarly with the Modal WILL — "he will get here BY 8 o'clock").

(II) "He may have gone yesterday" (indicating past possibility) or "by the time we arrive" (i.e. also the "Future Perfect").

(III) "He must have gone there yesterday" (indicating past inference).

All these structures have "past implications" of one form or another. Contrast the Past Modal + Present Base form of some of these verbs, e.g. "He had to go" (past obligation) v. "He must have gone" (present certainty about a past event) as the two past-time analogues of "MUST"; likewise, "He didn't need to go" (neutral implication — he went or he didn't) v. "He needn't have gone" (but he did, see Pattern 125 below) where the verb "NEED" in the first example is a full verb not a Modal.

Hebrew speakers usually find this structure particularly difficult, since Hebrew has no similar construction. The nearest equivalent might be:

— example (I) above — 8 הוא כבר לא יהיה כאן בשעה.

— example (II) above — יתכן שהלך אתמול / יתכן שכבר לא ייבצא עד שנגיע.

Pattern 124: Modal + Progressive Base

Modal + BE + VERB -ING

(a) *Present Modal*

Examples: "He will be going" (i.e. the "FUTURE PROGRESSIVE").
"He may be going."

This verbal form is not only used to indicate incomplete duration in the future (e.g. "He will be writing when you arrive" or "he will be sleeping at 8 p.m.", showing incomplete activity), but also a future activity already planned but stated rather informally (note that the present progressive may also indicate the future but only the near future, whereas the future progressive may also refer to the more distant future).

Compare: "I'll be writing to her next week" (= informal, a matter of course rather than conscious decision).
"I'll write to her next week (= a decision).

Note the following distinction in the interrogative:

— "Will you be going there tomorrow?", which merely seeks information informally; ("Are you going there tomorrow?" — less informal, seeking confirmation of a decision).

— "Will you go there tomorrow?", which might entail a request, as evidenced by the possible addition of "please".

(b) *Past Modal*

Examples: "(He said) he would be going".
"If he were with us now, we would / might / could already be enjoying ourselves".

Some traditional grammarians call this pattern with "WOULD" the "FUTURE PROGRESSIVE IN THE PAST" but such a definition ignores the formal and functional relationship of all the modals in this pattern.

Other more complex modal patterns (e.g. "he will/would have been going") may be regarded as part of the passive "recognition" grammar (Patterns 139, 149).

Pattern 125: Past Modal + Perfect Base

Past Modal + HAVE + VERB-past participle

Example: "He would/could/might/should/ought to/needn't have gone".

Some Traditional grammarians call this pattern with WOULD the "FUTURE PERFECT IN THE PAST" — see comments in Pattern 124(b) above.

(a) This construction is most commonly found in the "UNREAL PAST CONDITIONAL", where the conditional clause is in the past perfect. It is negative in declaration or implication, presupposing that a certain activity definitely ("would, should") or probably ("might, could") did not happen.

(b) Contrast: — He could have helped us (but he did not).
He could help us (maybe he still will).
— She ought to/should have told them (but she did not).
She ought to/should tell him (maybe she still will).
— He ought to have gone (but he didn't).
He needn't have gone (but he did).

(Patterns 121-125 are all examples of COMPLEX VERB PATTERNS.)

Pattern 126: Non-Defining Relative Clauses

Example: "Chaim Weizmann, who was born in Russia, became the first President of the State."

(a) A non-defining (non-restrictive, parenthetical) clause is in *apposition* to the main clause; it adds information to but is not semantically dependent on the main clause. The two functions of this relative clause are *parenthetical* (hence the commas or pauses) and *conjoining*. Hebrew speakers (and probably most English speakers conversationally) use a compound sentence of two main clauses instead of this construction, in the above example "Chaim Weizmann was born in Russia and became..." (i.e. conjoining). The correct use of this pattern is part of the necessary instruction in English stylistics in the Upper Division. Care should always be taken to distinguish this more formal parenthetic-conjoining pattern from the defining relative, which is a semantically and structurally integral part of the sentence and is used to modify the Head Noun.

(b) Speakers usually pause before and after such a clause (indicating its parenthetical character).

(c) This relative clause is normally preceded by a comma and followed by a comma or a full stop; alternatively it may be marked off by parentheses or dashes. Note also the non-defining "SENTENTIAL" clause coming at the end of the sentence — "He likes Mr. Smith, which is rather surprising".

This pausing or punctuation does not apply in the case of Defining Relative Clauses (taught in the Intermediate Division syllabus, Pattern 93).

(d) The relative pronouns used in this more formal construction are WHO, WHOM (obligatory as the Object pronoun), WHICH and WHOSE. The zero relative (deleted pronoun) and THAT are never used in this pattern.

(e) The two types of relative clause may be contrasted thus: "My friend who lives in England writes régularly" (defining — i.e. one of my many friends, so that the relative clause is essential to the meaning of the sentence), and "My friend, who lives in England, writes régularly" (non-defining — i.e. I have one friend, with the sentence conveying two separate pieces of information).

Pattern 127: Verb (Sensory Verb) + NP + Base / Participle

Contrasting examples: "I saw him read / reading."

This pattern can be viewed as a combination of two sentences — "I saw him / he read or "I saw him / he was reading. The use of the Base form indicates completion, while the participle indicates incomplete duration.

Another (classic textbook) example is "I saw him cross the road" (i.e. he arrived at the other side) as against "I saw him crossing the road" (i.e. en route). Hebrew does not make this distinction in the form of different structures.

Pattern 128: The Indirect Object as an Obligatory Phrase

In Grades 5 and 6 the Indirect Object, both as a prepositional phrase ("I gave the book to him") and as pronoun or noun-phrase ("I gave him the book"), was taught. However, certain verbs in English govern an obligatory prepositional phrase as Indirect Object; Hebrew speakers tend to over-generalize the NP Indirect Object pattern and so create such typical errors as: * "I explained him the answer" instead of "I explained the answer to him", and * "I suggested her the answer" instead of "I suggested the answer to her".

Verbs taking the Indirect Object transformation (i.e. Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object) are generally Germanic, monosyllabic words (exception: "say").

Compare:	give	— donate	(i.e. I gave him the book / the book to
	send	— deliver	him. But: I donated the book to him.)
	show	— demonstrate	
	tell	— explain, inform, report	
	read	— narrate	
	make, build	— construct	
	buy	— purchase	
	get	— obtain	

In other words, most verbs that have an obligatory prepositional phrase as Indirect Object are polysyllabic (except for "say") whereas those that have both structures are usually monosyllabic.

Pattern 129: Adjective + Preposition

Certain adjectives collocate with specific prepositions; in general, the use of the correct preposition is a sure sign of an idiomatic grasp of English and the teacher should drill these various prepositional patterns, including two-word verbs (Intermediate Division syllabus) the preposition + gerund (Intermediate Division syllabus) and now the adjective + preposition pattern.

Examples: "busy at, fond of, aware of, afraid of, good for, angry with".

Notice the preposition + NP + infinitive pattern — "it's kind of you to say so", "it's good for you to do that" — i.e. usually with "Preparatory IT + BE" patterns (see Pattern 134). Note that the preposition is deleted before a clause — he is so busy that . . ., I'm afraid that . . .

Pattern 130: Sentence-Connectors

("Conjunctive Adverbs" in Traditional grammar).

These function words (examples: "THEREFORE, LIKEWISE, MOREOVER, HENCE, BESIDES, HOWEVER, PERHAPS, FURTHERMORE") connect sentences into an organized discourse. The main purpose of these words is stylistic and paragraph-syntactic. Pupils in the Upper Division should have a good grasp of these words and their function, as integral features of English idiom and DISCOURSE. Some of these words are more typical of formal written style (e.g. "hence"), while others are colloquial and informal ("still", "besides"). In general, pupils in the Upper Division should be deliberately exposed to the more formal usage of written discourse.

Pattern 131: Quasi-Negatives (Barely, Seldom, Rarely, Hardly, Scarcely)

These pre-verbals are regarded as "quasi-negatives". Semantically they are positive, insofar as they do signify an achievement under difficulty, but syntactically they are negative, as evidenced by the positive question-tag —

"I don't know you, do I?"
"I hardly/scarcely know you, do I?"

as contrasted with "I do know you, don't I?"

Furthermore, they co-occur with "anybody/thing/where" more often than with "some . . .", again indicating their negative character.

Pattern 132: Emphatic Verb Phrases

Where the AUXILIARY (Modal, BE, HAVE or DO) in a Verb-Phrase is given emphatic stress, it serves to re-affirm the proposition as a whole and/or deny its negation — just as YES/NO questions query the entire proposition, rather than any single part of it.

Thus: He WILL help us (why did you think he might not?).
He IS coming with us (whether you like it or not).
She DOES understand French (you don't know everything about her).

Note the use of the carrier DO with the Present or Past Simple: this is the only learning problem in this Pattern.

Pattern 133: Modal "Be To"

Examples: "You are to be there at 8 o'clock".
"We are to meet at 8 o'clock".

BE TO indicates an arrangement and involves the concept of obligation (someone else arranges for you to do something). It is a Modal verb, since it cannot co-occur with other Modals (* he may be to meet us).

Pattern 134: Preparatory "It" (See Pattern 117 — Sentence Complements)

In Grades 5 and 6, the "Dummy Subject" (or PRO-SUBJECT) was taught in the pattern IT IS + Adjective, Participle, Noun, Pronoun, or expression of time or distance. The following structures can usefully be taught at this later stage:

(I) *IT IS + NP + FOR + NP + INFINITIVE*

Examples: "It's hard for me to get up in the morning."
"It's easy for you to do that".

Here "you" is the explicit Subject of the embedded sentence ("you do that"). The FOR-TO infinitival in Subject position is so formal as to sound stilted (e.g. "For me to do that would be easy."). Pupils should be made aware of such formal usages ("Recognition" grammar) but should be encouraged to use sentences with the Pro-Subject IT.

(II) *IT IS + NP + INFINITIVE*

Examples: "It's good to know that."
"It's hard to get up in the morning."

The "real subject" of BE is the infinitive phrase and the "IT" pattern can be viewed as deriving from the underlying sentence "to know that is good". Again, this is a very stilted usage: when the Subject of BE is an infinitive phrase, the PREPARATORY IT is certainly to be preferred and so will be taught.

(III) *IT IS + NP + GERUND*

Examples: "It's no use going there".
"It's fine knowing you".
"It's no good your pretending".

This construction seems to be more common in a negative context. The "real Subject" is the gerund, but the "Preparatory IT" is the more frequent and therefore the preferred construction.

As stated in the Syllabus for Grades 5 and 6 "The essential rule for 'THERE IS' and 'IT IS' is that a full English sentence requires a Subject before the Main Verb; if for some reason the Subject is omitted or placed after the Verb, a "dummy" Subject is placed in Subject position instead." Hebrew has a freer word-order and does not use this gram-

matical device so that the Hebrew speaker will tend not to use this 'IT' at all or will say 'THIS' (זה).

These constructions (including the ones below) can be viewed as generalized transformations from two underlying sentences.

(IV) *IT IS + NP + CLAUSE*

Examples: It is a shame (that) you couldn't come."

"It's obvious (that) he did it."

Here again, the Noun Clause in initial-sentence position ("that he did it is obvious") is found in the most formal style only (Pattern 147); pupils should be encouraged to use the "Preparatory IT" construction.

Where these expressions (in sections (I)-(IV) follow the verb, the empty Pro-Subject IT *must* be used — in Hebrew this is not necessary. Where they occur in Subject-position, the word IT must not be used. Some Hebrew speakers might tend to transpose the informal Hebrew usage /ze/ as 'IT' and so produce the following unacceptable sentences:

* For you to say that it is stupid.
* That he always comes late it is well-known.
* To do your homework in time it is wonderful.
* His coming here it was a nice surprise.

(V) *PREPARATORY 'IT' with CERTAIN LINKING VERBS*

Examples: "It appears/seems/that he has been here."

Note also such verbs as "it happens/occurs to me that...", which are not Linking Verbs.

(VI) *PREPARATORY 'IT' WITH VERBS EXPRESSING EMOTIONS*

Examples: "It amazes/pleases/delights/disappoints/excites me to hear your news." In all these cases, the recomposition of the sentence to have the clause or other complement of the verb in sentence-initial position is rare, hyper-formal or non-occurring. Note that these verbs comprise the same class as those mentioned in Pattern 115.

Pattern 135: Preparatory "It" After the Main Verb

(I) Example: "I think it strange/a pity that he should be invited".

The sentence may be analyzed as a compound sentence with three parts: the first part is "I think"; the second part has "IT" as a Dummy Subject with the deleted verb "BE"; with yet a third part "he should be invited". This construction appears most frequently with verbs of "belief" (e.g. "consider, hold, believe").

A similar construction, but more complex, is "I owe to you that we are all safe and sound".

(II) Example: "I leave it to you to decide".
The infinitive is the Direct Object of the verb (cf: I leave the decision to you").

(III) Example: "This will make it possible to undertake the task".
Here again, 'IT' may be viewed as the Preparatory Subject IT of a clause with deleted verb 'BE', with the "Real Subject" at the end.

Pattern 136: "Wish" + Noun-Object Clause with the verb in the past perfect

Example: "I wish/ed (that) he had been there".
Pattern 94 of the Intermediate Division Syllabus specifies the "WISH + THAT CLAUSE", with the verb in the THAT clause in the past tense, meaning an unfulfilled present hope. ("I wish he were here now"). At this stage, the Noun-Object Clause with the verb in the past perfect is taught, meaning an unfulfilled hope relating to past circumstances ("I wish/ed he had been here *then*").

SOME STRUCTURES WHICH MAY FORM PART OF THE PASSIVE "RECOGNITION" GRAMMAR

If the teachers are satisfied that their pupils have thoroughly mastered all the Patterns above, they will probably teach some of the following structures, as well as other structures not listed here, as part of the active grammatical inventory of the pupils, but for most pupils the following structures will probably be "recognition" items only, to be met and explained in the course of their readings etc. but not intensively drilled or tested.

Pattern 137: Inverted Word Order

As in conditional sentences ("Were you to do this, I would..."; Had you done this, I would have...), with negators heading sentences ("Never have I seen..."), and with "only + adverb" heading sentences ("Only later did I realize...").

Pattern 138: Modals in Conditional Clauses

Examples: "If you were to/should/will/would do this, I would be most obliged".

Pattern 139: Modal + Progressive Perfect Base

Examples: "I will/may have been living..." (i.e. including the so-called "FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE").

Pattern 140 : Past Modal + Progressive Perfect Base

Examples: "I would/might have been going . . .".

Pattern 141 : Independent Participle as a Sentence-Modifier

(Sentence Complement as an adverbial modifier)

Examples: "Reading, he fell asleep. Having seen her home, he took a taxi".

Pattern 142 : Indefinite Subject "One"

Example: "One doesn't do that kind of thing".

Pattern 143 : "Coloured Future"

Example: "You shall do it, whether you want to or not".

Pattern 144 : Verbs of Suggestion or Command + (That) Clauses with Base (in all persons) = "Subjunctive" in Traditional grammar.

Examples: "I suggest/demand (that) he be here".
"I suggest/demand (that) he not come".

Pattern 145 : Perfect Infinitive and Perfect Gerund

Examples: "We were sorry to have missed you".
"We remembered having seen you somewhere".

N.B. The Perfect Base is taught in the active grammatical inventory, as part of a complex verb phrase (e.g. he would have gone — Pattern 125).

Pattern 146 : NP + Passive Infinitive

Example: "He is a man to be admired".

Pattern 147 : Noun Clauses and Infinitivals (Sentence Complements) in Subject Position

Examples: "For you to behave like that is inconceivable."
"That he did it is well known to everyone".

(See Pattern 134 for Pro-Subject IT and Pattern 117 for Sentence Complements.)